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The articles, the authors and the names of those mentioned in the volume are listed in alphabetical order. In addition there are these classifications:

Book Reviews
Civic Improvement
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Delinquent, The
Departments
Housing
Immigration
Industrial Education
Industrial Viewpoint

Juvenile Courts and Probation
Milk
Organized Charity
Pittsburgh
Play, Playgrounds and Parks
Saloons and Prohibition
Schools
Schools of Philanthropy
Settlements
Social Forces
Tuberculosis
Unemployment

Index

VOLUME XX

APRIL, 1908—OCTOBER, 1908

- About Women Wage Earners, 423.
Abnormality of Vice, The, (Social Forces), 87.
Abrams, Effie M., 871.
Absinthe Evil Attacked, The, 610.
Addams, Jane, 80, 124, 155, 223, 257, 258, 388.
Adler, Felix, 51.
Advance in Hospital Service, An, 643.
Aftermath at Monongah, The, 387.
Agrarian Pooling in Kentucky, 192.
Aims of a Boys' Club, 61.
Alger, George William, 525.
Almy, Frederick, 197, 366, 722.
Amateur Night Performers, 408.
A. M. Wilson Will Succeed Mr. Bicknell, 407.
Anagnos, Michael, 12.
Appropriation for Haverstraw State Colony, 205.
Arnold-Forster, H. O., 482.
Aunt Hannah's Birthday Party, 631.
- Back to Nature for the Indian, 336.
Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children, 277.
Bailey, L. H., 37, 623.
Baker, M. N., 121.
Balch, Emily Greene, 524, 626.
Barnes, Earl, 234, 235.
Barnum, Gertrude, 532.
Barr, Martin V., 223.
Barrows, Samuel J., 115, 264, 353, 503, 613, 628, 714.
Bath Lines Rivaling Bread Lines, 626.
Beers, Clifford Whittingham, 536.
Before and After, 469.
Bernheimer, Charles S., 727.
Better America Inspired or America Sober? (Social Forces), 695.
Bibliography of Books on the Blind, 12.
Bicknell Ernest, 7, 223, 249, 366, 397, 398, 399, 407, 468.
Bijur, Nathan, 204, 277.
Bingham, Theodore, 701, 702, 721.
Blaustein, David, 204, 275, 276.
Bledsoe, John F., 12.
Book Reviews.
 Bibliograph of Books on the Blind, 12.
 Chapters in Rural Progress, 689.
 Christianity and the Social Order, 537.
 Common Sense of the Milk Question, 592.
 Elements of Hygiene, 234.
 English Socialism of To-day, 482.
 Essentials of Milk Hygiene, 593.
 Field Day and Play Picnic, The, 412.
 First Steps in Organizing Playgrounds, 411.
 Gaining Health in the West, 232.
 Government by the People, 482.
 Handbook of Child Labor Legislation, 288.
 He Who Votes, 482.
 History of Nursing, The, 77.
 Mind That Found Itself, The, 536.
 National and Social Studies, 520.
 New Worlds for Old, 484.
 Next Street But One, The, 630.
 Pioneers and Heroes of American History, 99.
 Religion of a Democrat, The, 612.
 Russian Peasant, The, 702.
 Sanitation and Public Buildings, 76.
 Sex and Society, 726.
 Socialists at Work, 486.
 Sociological Study of the Negro, A, 100.
 Use of the Margin, 234.
 Where Knowledge Falls, 234.
 Winning the Boy, 703.
Boston's Lodging House Commission, 363.
Boston School for Social Workers, 389.
Bovine Tuberculosis in New York, 407.
Boyle, Edward, 223.
Brandeis, Louis D., 423, 425.
Brandt, Lilian, 231.
Brewers' Convention, The, 516.
Brewer Defended, The, 691.
Brooklyn to Have Congestion Exhibit, 5.
Brooks, John Graham, 688.
Brown, J. Willcox, 245.
Bruere, Henry, 211.
Burns, Allen, 623.
Business of Play, The, 458.
Butler, Amos W., 260, 261, 272.
Butler, Edmond J., 271.
Butler, Elizabeth Beardsley, 424, 433, 484, 486, 549, 648.
Butterfield, Kenyon L., 689.
By Reason of Strength, 151.
Byrnes, Thomas, 525.
- Cabot, Richard C., 320.
Campbell, R. J., 537.
Caroline Rest Club for Social Workers, 576.
Carpenter, R. P., 601.
Carstens, C. C., 257.
Catalog of Social Investigations, 426.
Catechism on Blindness, A, 518.
Cavallaro, Luigi, 99.
Chapters in Rural Progress, 689.
Charles F. Weller Goes to Pittsburgh, 393.
Chattanooga's Juvenile League, 469.
Cheap Amusements, 73.
Chelsea's Chance to Rebuild Rightly, 304.
Chelsea Fire, The, 149.
Chelsea House; A Self-Supporting Home for Working Girls, 610.
Chicago's New Juvenile Judge, 465.
Chicago Play Festival, The, 421, 539.
Chicago's Public Hospital Service, 585.
Chicago Relief Problem, 6.

- Chicago School of Philanthropy, 388.
 Chicago Settlements and Social Unrest, The, 155.
 Child Labor.
 Child Labor and Social Progress, 104.
 Child Labor in Pennsylvania, 478.
 Child Labor in Washington, 722.
 Compulsory Education in Louisiana, 363.
 Flower Factory, The, 370.
 For the Children of Rhode Island, 361.
 Handbook of Child Labor Legislation, 288.
 Is a 10-Hour Workday Too Short for Children, 422.
 Legislative Victory for Working Girls, 392.
 Moral Crusades in Reasonable Measure, 362.
 Senate Monopoly of Child Labor, The, 429.
 Vacation Work in Wisconsin, 370.
 Child Labor and Social Progress, 104.
 Child Labor in Pennsylvania, 478.
 Child Labor in Washington, 722.
 Children's Bureau, The, (Social Forces), 419.
 Children's Home Society Completes Quarter Century, 480.
 Children's Lunch Room, 400.
 Children's Meetings at the National Conference, 256.
 Christianity and the Social Order, 539.
 Cincinnati's Industrial Situation, 684.
 "City Saving Itself, A," 609.
 Civic Conference for Massachusetts, 513.
 Civic Improvement, 108, 236, 402, 496, 616, 712.
 Claghorn, Kate Holladay, 268, 722.
 Clark, Mary Vida, 206, 212, 469.
 Clarke, L. Freeman, 583.
 Cleveland Milk Contest, The, 128.
 Cleveland's Playground Commission, 129.
 Clever Scheme to Beat the Tenement House Law, A, 375.
 Cohen, Joseph H., 277.
 Collier, John, 73.
 Coming Play Congress, The, 623.
 Committee on Statistics, The, 267.
 Common Sense of the Milk Question, 592.
 Commons, John R., 687.
 Communications.
 Bolton Hall Answered Again, 218.
 Brewer Defended, The, 691.
 Congestion Remedy, A, 633.
 Co-operation in New Rochelle, 601.
 Co-operation of Charities, 476.
 Correction, A, 120, 235, 729.
 Correction of N. Y. School Announcement, 418.
 Evil Alliance, An, 620.
 Evil Effects of "Tagging", 583.
 Farm as a Congestion Cure, The, 220.
 From a Subscriber, 119.
 Future of Misdemeanants, The, 504.
 Gardens at Speyer School, 122.
 Give the Brewers a Chance, 682.
 Helping Helpless Girls, 583.
 Ice System, The, 118.
 In the Old Folk's Home, 118.
 Jails and Penitentiaries, 220.
 Jail Visitors a Necessity, 505.
 Juvenile Court Procedure, 583.
 Maryland Board, The, 476.
 Miss Hammond's Work, 122.
 New Idea in Public Baths, A, 524.
 No Pity for Landlords, 119.
 Not on Chelsea Committee, 235.
 Occident in the Orient, 119.
 Opportunity for Wealth, The, 691.
 Other Side of Tag Day, The, 524.
 Picture Wins a Playground, A, 692.
 Plea for Receiving Homes, 600.
 Reform Through Development, 121.
 Water for an Institution, 120.
 What Settlements Stand For, 508.
 Would Restrict Vivisection, 583.
 Compulsory Education in Louisiana, 363.
 Concerning Vagrancy, 674.
 Conferences.
 Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children, 277.
 Brewers' Convention, The, 516.
 Children's Meetings at the National Conference, 256.
 Coming Play Congress, The, 623.
 Committee on Statistics, National Conference, The, 267.
 Conference at Richmond, The, 249.
 Conference Officers for 1909, 223.
 Criminals, Their Punishment and Reformation, 264.
 International Tuberculosis Congress, The, 697.
 Maryland Conference of Charities, The, 206.
 Massachusetts Charities Conference, 687.
 National Conference at Richmond, 72.
 National Conference of Jewish Charities, The, 274.
 National Conference of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, 270.
 National Tuberculosis Convention, 361.
 Needy Families, Their Homes and Neighborhoods, 251.
 New Hampshire Conference of Charities, 291.
 New York State Conference, The, 722.
 Prison Congress to Meet in America, 574.
 Section on Defectives, 261.
 State Supervision, 259.
 Conference at Richmond, The, 72, 249.
 Conference Officers for 1909, 223.
 Congestion Exhibit in Brooklyn, The, 209.
 Congestion Remedy, A, 633.
 Convalescent Homes in Boston, New York and Philadelphia, 570.
 Co-operation in New Rochelle, 601.
 Co-operation of Charities, 476.
 Correction, A, 120, 235, 729.
 Correction of Announcement of New York School, 418.
 Cracker Industry in Pittsburgh, The, 648.
 Crime Among the Jews, 701.
 Criminals, Their Punishment and Reformation, 264.
 Cutler, J. E., 487.

- Davis, George B., 223.
 Dawson, Percy M., 314.
 Day Camp School of Outdoor Life, 516.
 Day, A., 312.
 Day's Work Making Gloves, A., 659.
 Death of Frank P. Sargent, 687.
 Death of Mrs. E. A. McCutcheon, 530.
 Deemer Fresh Air Farm, The, 639.
 Defectives and Dependents, 618.
 de Forest, Robert W., 80, 374, 382, 392, 525.
 Delinquent, The, 115, 503, 613, 714.
 Denmark's Old Age Pension, 128.
 Departments.
 Civic Improvement, 108, 236, 402, 496, 616, 712.
 Defectives and Dependents, 618.
 Delinquent, The, 115, 503, 613, 714.
 Organized Charity, 111, 499, 717.
 Prevention of Tuberculosis, 238.
 Settlements, 506.
 Devine, Edward T., 1, 37, 67, 87, 120, 123, 143, 232, 249, 272, 274, 301, 386, 413, 419, 525, 603, 635, 695, 697.
 Dewson, Mary W., 183.
 Dinwiddie, Emily Wayland, 579.
 Director of the Psychiatric Clinic Johns Hopkins University, 421.
 Dock, Lavinia L., 77, 234.
 Dowd, Jerome, 100.
 Dr. Koch's Visit to America (Social Forces), 90.
 Dr. Lee K. Frankel's Retirement, 204.
 Dyer, Florence M., 77.
 East Side and the Late Panic, The, 426.
 Easy Chair, The, 522.
 Economic Interpretation of History, The, 228.
 Economies Among the Poor, 640.
 Educational Relief Through Pensions and Budgets, 197.
 Effect of Emigration Upon Italy, 13, 167, 323.
 Elements of Hygiene, 234.
 Ely, Charles W., 476.
 English Children's Bill, 70.
 Ernest Bicknell to Lead the Red Cross, 397.
 Europe's Unemployed Situation, 8.
 Evans, Elizabeth G., 183.
 Evil Alliance, An, 620.
 Evil Effects of "Tagging", 583.
 Fallows, Samuel, 223.
 Famine Relief Work in Russia, 353.
 Farnam, H. W., 688.
 Farrand, Livingston, 238.
 Faulkner, C. E., 583.
 Federal Employers' Liability Law, 127.
 Federal Workmen's Compensation, 244.
 Feeble-mindedness and Juvenile Delinquency, 183.
 Feeding of the School Children, The, 371, 381, 400, 413.
 Fee System, The, 118.
 Fetter, Frank A., 223.
 Finley, John H., 33.
 Fit Opportunity in Infinite Variety (Social Forces), 67.
 Fitzgerald, John J., 722.
 Fleisher, Samuel S., 277.
 Flexner, Bernard, 455, 534.
 Flower Factory, The, 370.
 Folks, Homer, 223.
 For a New Chicago Charter, 683.
 For the Children of Rhode Island, 361.
 Forecast from Washington, A., 638.
 Forecast of a Hard Winter, 625.
 Forel, August, 696.
 Four Classes of Bad Boys, 514.
 Four Questions and Juvenile Crime, 590.
 Fox, Alice B., 610.
 Fox, Hugh F., 206, 516, 525, 526.
 Fox, John, 223.
 Frankel, Lee K., 35, 93, 204, 276, 277, 391.
 From a Subscriber, 119.
 From the Stable to the Table, 244.
 Fuller, Robert H., 482.
 Fulton, John S., 223.
 Future of Misdemeanants, The, 504.
 Gaining Health in the West, 232.
 Galveston Immigration Movement, The, 368.
 Gardens at Speyer School, 122.
 Georgia's Chain Gang Held Up to the Light, 528.
 Georgia's Convict Lease System Remedied, 721.
 Georgia to Have Juvenile State, 131.
 Gerhard, William Paul, 76.
 Giddings, Franklin A., 247.
 Gilder, Richard Watson, 80.
 Gilman, Elisabeth E., 122.
 Gillpatrick, Wallace, 731.
 Give the Brewers a Chance, 682.
 Glanton, Louise, 122.
 Glasshouses, 449.
 Glenn, Helen, 256.
 Glenn, John M., 247, 476.
 Glenn, Mary Willcox, 253.
 Goldmark, Josephine C., 288, 423, 688.
 Goler, G. W., 34, 722.
 Good Neighbor Again, The, 230.
 Gould, E. R. L., 52.
 Grand Jury Indictment of Springfield Police, 683.
 Greenman, Walter F., 119.
 Greene, Frederick D., 596.
 Greensfelder, Bernard, 277.
 Griggs, Edward Howard, 234, 235.
 Gruner, Caroline F., 425.
 Gulick, Luther, 47, 81, 623.
 Guthrie, W. B., 482.
 Hadley, Edith M., 610.
 Hall, Bolton, 120.
 Hall, Fred S., 120.
 Hall, George A., 729.
 Hamilton, Alice, 655.
 Hamilton, James H., 382, 400.
 Handbook of Child Labor Legislation, 288.
 Hanmer, Lee F., 411, 453.
 Hard Times and Criminals, 723.
 Hard, William, 425.
 Harrison, Frederic, 520.
 Hart, Hastings H., 277.
 Hartman, Edward T., 211.
 Haskell, H. J., 368.
 Health of Women Workers, 425

- Helberd, Robert W., 34, 223, 247, 283, 392, 643.
 Helping Helpless Girls, 583.
 Heller, Harriet, 623.
 Henry, Alice, 350, 583.
 Herts, Alice Minnie, 308.
 Herzberg, Max, 277.
 Hess Milk Refrigerator, The, 595.
 He Who Votes, 482.
 Higgins, Alice, 149.
 Hilles, Charles D., 278, 722.
 History of Nursing, The, 77.
 Hofer, Mari Ruef, 616.
 Hoffman, Frederick L., 247.
 Hollander, Jacob H., 275, 276.
 Holland's Care of Helpless Mothers, 409.
 Hopf, M. G., 218.
 Hornsby, J. L., 271.
 Hough, Theodore, 234.
 Housing.
 Brooklyn to Have Congestion Exhibit, 5.
 Clever Scheme to Beat the Tenement House Law, A, 375.
 Congestion and Sweated Labor, 48.
 Congestion a State Not a City Problem, 54.
 Congestion Exhibit in Brooklyn, The, 209.
 Congestion Remedy, A, 633.
 Consequences of Overcrowding, The, 51.
 Exhibit of Congestion Interpreted, The, 27.
 Farm as a Congestion Cure, The, 220.
 Italians in Congested Districts, The, 55.
 New Jersey's Tenement Improvement, 208.
 Play and Congestion, 43.
 Putting Men on Farms in New York State, 57.
 Tenement Improvement in San Francisco, 226.
 Tenement Law for Baltimore, 700.
 Way Out, The, 52.
 Where People Live that Live in Congested Districts, 39.
 Howard, Charles F., 722.
 Howells, William Dean, 522.
 How Strengthen Women's Unions, 685.
 How to Avoid the Breathless Habit, 320.
 Hughes, Charles E., 5, 34, 92, 96, 143, 392, 393, 401, 528, 623.
 Hunter, Robert, 93, 486.
 Hutcheson, Louise, 425.
 Hutchinson, Woods, 528, 623.
 Hynes, T. W., 271.
 Illinois State Charities Investigation, 284.
 Illinois Women for Industrial Education, 95.
 Immigrant Acts at Greenwich House, 146.
 Immigrant Women Workers, 424.
 Immigration.
 Effect of Emigration Upon Italy, 13.
 Galveston Immigration Movement, The, 363.
 Immigrant Acts at Greenwich House, 146.
 Immigrant Women Workers, 424.
 Important Tuberculosis Legislation, 203.
 Industrial Diseases, 655.
 Industrial Education.
 Industrial Schools at Lawrence, Mass., 147.
 Minneapolis for Industrial Education, 130.
 Public School Course of Salesmanship, 382.
 Trade Schools for New York, 410.
 Industrial Experiment for Unemployed Women, 532.
 Industrial Issues at the Chicago Convention, 430.
 Industrial Outlook in St. Louis, 698.
 Industrial School at Lawrence, Mass., 147.
 Industrial Situation in Chicago, 637.
 Industrial Viewpoint, The, 199, 357.
 Insane and Epileptic, The, 263.
 International Association for Labor Legislation, The, 687.
 International Fourth of July, An, 469.
 International Tuberculosis Congress, The, 697.
 Interstate Health Investigations, 91.
 In the Old Folk's Home, 118.
 Is a Ten-Hour Workday Too Short for Children, 422.
 Isolation of the Negro North and South, 698.
 Israels, Belle Lindner, 343, 701.
 Is There Land for the Unemployed, 341.
 Jackson, James F., 223.
 Jacobi, Abraham, 37.
 Jail Visitors a Necessity, 505.
 Jenkins, James, 292.
 Jenks, Jeremiah W., 38.
 Jensen, C. O., 593.
 Jewish Pioneers in Wisconsin, 723.
 Johnson, Alexander, 151, 223, 249, 259, 277, 536, 618.
 Johnson, L. S., 476.
 Johns Hopkins Psychiatric Clinic, 428.
 Johnstone, E. R., 261.
 Jottings, 83, 141, 221, 242, 281, 299, 405, 418, 511, 584, 601, 622, 692, 731.
 Juvenile Courts and Probation.
 Chicago's New Juvenile Judge, 465.
 Four Questions and Juvenile Crime, 590.
 Georgia to Have a Juvenile State, 131.
 Juvenile Courts for the South, 386.
 Juvenile Courts in France, 290.
 Juvenile Court Laws, 455.
 Juvenile Court Procedure, 583.
 Juvenile Court Reducing Its Need, 287.
 New York Probation Association, 385.
 Juvenile Court Laws, 455.
 Juvenile Courts for the South, 386.
 Juvenile Courts in France, 290.
 Juvenile Court Procedure, 583.
 Juvenile Court Reducing Its Need, 287.
 Karnes, New and Krautkoff, 692.
 Kelley, Florence, 48, 370, 423, 429, 687.
 Kellogg, Arthur P., 9, 482, 522.
 Kellogg, Charles P., 259.
 Kellogg, W. B., 341.
 Keller, Helen, 518.
 Kellor, Frances A., 424.
 Kelsey, Carl, 392, 395.

- Kelso, J. J., 223.
 Kennard, Howard P., 702.
 Kent, Williams, 183.
 Kingsley, Sherman C., 7, 468.
 Koren, John, 223, 247, 267.
 Korn, Albert R., 219.
 Kreuzpointner, Paul, 583.
 Kruesl, Walter E., 97, 593.

 Labor Day, 1908, 641.
 Labor Planks Rejected at Chicago Adopted at Denver, 531.
 Laidlaw, Walter, 34.
 Lansberg, Mrs. Max, 277.
 Larmon, C. W., 57.
 Launching the Lowell, 283.
 League of Home and School Associations, 225.
 Lee, Joseph, 43, 149, 528, 623.
 Legislative Victory for Working Children, A, 392.
 Leipziger, Henry M., 36.
 Leupp, Constance D., 263.
 Leupp, Francis E., 336.
 Levin, Louis H., 277.
 Lewis, Orlando F., 379, 416, 417, 674, 722.
 Libraries for Children, 131.
 Licenses Revoked in Baltimore, 243.
 Liebmman, Julius, 525.
 Lindsay, Samuel McCune, 392, 418.
 Lindsey, Ben B., 590, 703.
 Little Red Tag a Sanitary Reformer, The, 479.
 Loeb, Morris, 54, 570.
 Lovejoy, Owen R., 624.
 Lowell, Josephine Shaw, 283.
 Lowenstein, Solomon, 274.
 Luby, James, 520.

 McCann, J., 271.
 McClellan, George B., 623, 639.
 McCutcheon, Mrs. E. A., 530.
 McKelway, A. J., 104.
 McKenzie, Ethel, 462.
 McLean, Annie Marion, 424.
 McLean, Francis H., 111, 251, 309, 499, 717.
 McVey, Frank L., 223.
 Mack, Julian, 256, 276, 277, 465.
 Magistrate's Courts in New York, 96.
 Maine's Triple Police for Children, 589.
 Mangano, Antonio, 13, 167, 323.
 Manierre, Alfred L., 621.
 Marlborough, Consuelo, Duchess of, 79, 80.
 Marsh, Benjamin C., 5, 39, 209, 223, 251.
 Marks, Martin A., 277.
 Maryland Board, The, 476.
 Maryland Conference of Charities, The, 206.
 Martin, John, 5, 27, 471.
 Mathews, John L., 192.
 Maurice, Katherine L., 702.
 Maxwell, William H., 80, 81, 210, 371, 382, 401, 528, 623.
 Maryland Loses an Opportunity, 383.
 Massachusetts Protects Her Boys, 384.
 Massachusetts Charities Conference, The, 687.
 Meeting and Mingling of Peoples, A, 548.
 Menace and a Remedy, A, 533.
 Merrill, Lillburn, 703.

 Meyer, Adolf, 421.
 Milk.
 Cleveland Milk Contest, 128.
 Common Sense of the Milk Question, 592.
 From the Stable to the Table, 244.
 Hess Milk Refrigerator, The, 595.
 Milk Hygiene, 593.
 To Reduce Infant Mortality, 285.
 Milk Hygiene, 593.
 Millett, Philippe, 539, 548.
 Mind That Found Itself, A, 536.
 Miner, Maude E., 385, 386, 703.
 Minneapolis for Industrial Education, 130.
 Miss Hammond's Work, 122.
 Modification of the New York Insanity Law, 212.
 Money Authorized for Sewerage Inquiry, 145.
 Moore, Sarah W., 99.
 Moral Crusades in Reasonable Measure, 362.
 More Work Though Irregular, 365.
 Morrow, Prince A., M. D., 518.
 Morse, Frances R., 235.
 Mowry, Duane, 691.
 Mrs. Humphrey Ward on Play, 79.
 Muir Woods—A National Park, 181.
 Muller, George, 692.
 Mulry, Thomas M., 249, 250, 271.
 Municipal Insurance Against Idleness, 608.
 Münsterberg, Hugo, 695, 696, 705, 706, 708.
 Murphy, John, 271.

 Nathan, Maud, 687.
 National and Social Studies, 520.
 National Conference of Jewish Charities, The, 274.
 National Conference of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, The, 270.
 National Tuberculosis Convention, 361.
 Necessity of Leisure, The, 314.
 Need for Adequate Records, 721.
 Need of Provision for Treating Inebriates, 573.
 Needy Families, Their Homes and Neighborhoods, 251.
 Negroes Form Insurance League, 478.
 Negro Races, The, 100.
 Neill, Charles P., 688.
 Nelson, N. O., 221.
 Nestor, Agnes, 659.
 New Departure in Association Work, 224.
 Newfoundland to Fight Tuberculosis, 477.
 New Hampshire Conference of Charities, 291.
 New Idea in Social Work, A, 563.
 New Infirmary for Cook County, The, 69.
 New Jersey's Tenement Improvement, 208.
 New Quarters for Chicago Organizations, 361.
 New School of Commerce, A, 605.
 New York Association of Neighborhood Workers, The, 699.
 New York Fire Department Relief, 639.
 New York Hospitals in 1920, 492.
 New York Labor Reports, 686.
 New York Probation Association, 385.
 New York School of Philanthropy's Commencement, 364.

- New York State Conference, The, 722.
 New York's Need for an Asylum, 5.
 Newton, C. B., 119.
 New Worlds for Old, 484.
 Next Street But One, The, 630.
 Nibecker, F. H., 223.
 Nicholson, Timothy, 151, 152, 153, 154.
 No Pity for Landlords, 119.
 Norris, Mabel E., 425.
 Not on Chelsea Committee, 235.
 Nursing Reform for Almshouses, 147.
 Nutting, M. Adelaide, 77.
- Occident in the Orient, 119.
 Odencrantz, Louise C., 425.
 Old World Fete in Industrial America, An, 546.
 Opportunity for Wealth, The, 691.
 Organization in Oshkosh, 148.
 Organization of Women Workers, The, 513.
 Organized Charity, 111, 499, 717.
 Osborne, Thomas D., 223.
 Osgood, Irene, 425.
 Out of Work in New York, 92.
- Palmer, Lewis E., 348.
 Parents and Social Service, 146.
 Parks (see Play, Playgrounds and Parks).
 Play, Playgrounds and Parks.
 "A City Saving Itself," 609.
 Business of Play, The, 458.
 Chicago Play Festival, The, 421, 539.
 Civic Improvement, 108, 236, 402, 496, 616, 712.
 Cleveland's Playground Commission, 129.
 Coming Play Congress, 623.
 Evil Effects of Tagging, The, 583.
 Meeting and Mingling of Peoples, A, 548.
 Mrs. Humphrey Ward on Play, 79.
 Muir Woods, 181.
 Old World Fete in Industrial America, An, 546.
 Other Side of Tag Day, 524.
 Picture Wins a Playground, A, 692.
 Play Congress, 623.
 Play and Playground, 661.
 Playground Association for New York and Brooklyn, 465.
 Playground Association of Philadelphia, The, 462.
 Playgrounds in Washington and Elsewhere, 101.
 Playgrounds in Yonkers, 627.
 Play Schools on Trial in St. Louis, 410.
 President Roosevelt on the Play Spirit, 586.
 Public Officials and the Play Congress, 527.
 Seward Park, 295.
 Time to Play, 411.
 Trenton Boys Play Ball, 685.
 Passing of the Alaska Indians, 574.
 Patten, Simon N., 228, 230, 231, 232, 451, 695, 705.
 Patterson, William R., 247.
 Pearson, Leonard, 593.
 Pearson, W. R., 633.
- Peixotto, Sidney S., 61.
 Penniman, Caroline D., 630.
 Peppard, Bertha A., 234.
 Perkins, Frances, 424.
 Persons, W. Frank, 382.
 Peters, John P., 525.
 Picture Wins a Playground, A, 692.
 Pioneers and Heroes of American History, 99.
 Pittsburgh.
 Cracker Industry in Pittsburgh, The, 648.
 Pittsburgh Steam Laundry Workers, 549.
 Pittsburgh to Study Typhoid, 204.
 Pure Water Now Furnished, 243.
 Stogy Industry in Pittsburgh, The, 433.
 Pittsburgh's Steam Laundry Workers, 549.
 Pittsburgh to Study Typhoid, 204.
 Plans for Dependent Girls in Illinois, 93.
 Play and Playground, 661.
 Playground Association for New York and Brooklyn, 465.
 Playground Association for Philadelphia, The, 462.
 Playgrounds in Washington and Elsewhere, 101.
 Playgrounds in Yonkers, 627.
 Play Schools on Trial in St. Louis, 410.
 Plea for Receiving Homes, 600.
 Plight of St. Louis, The, 213.
 Political Exploitation of State Institutions, 624.
 Positive Gains in the South, 367.
 Poverty and Insurance for the Unemployed, 343.
 Pratt, Benjamin C., 39, 41.
 Preparation in Club Work, 724.
 President's Agricultural Commission, The, (Social Forces), 603.
 President Roosevelt on the Play Spirit, 586.
 Press and Publicity, 269.
 Prevention of Tuberculosis, 238.
 Priest and Settlement (Social Forces), 89.
 Price, George B., 232.
 Prison Congress to Meet in America, 574.
 Probation in the District of Columbia, 286.
 Professor Kelsey and His Work, 395.
 Professor Patten on Monopoly and Social Work, 451.
 Protection Against Agricultural Accidents, 587.
 Providence Fresh Air School, The, 97.
 Provident Fund for Third Avenue System, 586.
 Providence Tuberculosis Camp, 365.
 Public and Private Charity Working Together, 411.
 Public Education Association, The, 515.
 Public Health, 292.
 Public Meetings and the Police (Social Forces), 1.
 Public Officials and the Play Congress, 527.
 Public School and Public Health, 684.
 Public School Course of Salesmanship, 382.
 Pure Water Now Furnished, 243.
 Putting Penalty on Prosperity (Place), 303.
- Quigley, Mae G., 131.

- Race Riot in Lincoln's City, The, 627.
 Rapier, Thomas D., 271.
 Red Cross Director, The, 396.
 Red Cross Reports on San Francisco Relief, 575.
 Redemption of "Lung Block," The, 579.
 Reform Through Development, 121.
 Regulation of Bovine Tuberculosis, 306.
 Relief Work in Petersburg Before the War, 245.
 Religion of a Democrat, The, 612.
 Report of New York's Hospital Commission, 606.
 Richman, Julia, 37, 81, 294.
 Richmond, Mary E., 230, 254.
 Ricker, George S., 122.
 Right View of the Child, The (Social Forces), 123.
 Riis, Jacob, 80, 101, 213, 235, 528.
 Roberts, Peter, 224.
 Robinson, Beverley, 220, 506.
 Robinson, Charles Mulford, 108, 181, 236, 402, 496, 616, 712.
 Robinson, George B., 223.
 Roofs of New York, The, 596.
 Roosevelt, Theodore, 183, 623.
 Rosendale, Simon W., 722.
 Rosenwald, Julius, 277.
 Rural Development, 309.
 Russian Peasant, The, 702.
 Ryan, George R., 271.
- Saloons and Prohibition.**
 Better America Inspired or America Sober? (Social Forces), 695.
 Brewers' Convention, The, 516.
 Brewer Defended, The, 691.
 Evil Alliance, An, 620.
 Give the Brewers a Chance, 682.
 Licenses Revoked in Baltimore, 243.
 Need of Provision for Treating Inebriates, 573.
 Saloon Commission, A, (Social Forces), 525.
 Social Basis of Prohibition, 705.
 Saloon Commission, A, (Social Forces), 525.
- Sanitary Conditions? "There Are None,"** (San Francisco), 529.
Sanitation and Public Buildings, 76.
 Sargent, Death of Frank P., 687.
 Salt, Hilda, 508.
 Savings Banks Ready to Issue Insurance, 466.
- Schools.**
 Day Camp School of Outdoor Life, 516.
 Feeding of the School Children, The, 371, 381, 400, 413.
 Play Schools on Trial in St. Louis, 410.
 School Children's Lunches, 400.
 Social Side of the Public School, The, 487.
 Trade Schools for New York, 410.
 Underfed Child in the Schools, 413.
- Schools of Philanthropy.**
 Boston School of Social Workers, 389.
 Chicago School of Philanthropy, 388.
 New York School Commencement, 364.
 Summer Session of Chicago School, 481.
- Summer Session of New York School, 390, 530.
 School Children's Lunch Room, The, 400.
 Schwab, L. Henry, 682.
 Scudder, Myron T., 48, 412, 623.
 Seager, Henry R., 39.
 Section on Defectives, 261.
 Sedgwick, William, 234.
 Self-Culture Hall Association—The Rise of the Social Settlement Movement in St. Louis, 670.
 Senate Monopoly of Child Labor, The, 429.
 Service of the Settlements, The, (Social Forces), 89.
 Settlements, 506.
 Seward Park, 295.
 Sex and Society, 726.
 Sheldon Walter L., 670.
 Sherman, P. Tecumseh, 722.
 Sherrard, W. B., 600.
 Shoenfeld, Mayer, 426.
 Significance of the White House Conference, 471.
 Simkhovitch, Mary K., 386, 506.
 Sleet, Jessie C., 631.
 Slight Gain in Employment (New York), 8.
 Smith, Zilpha D., 230, 255.
 Snedden, David, 133.
 So-Called Race Riot at Springfield, Illinois, The, 709.
 Social Basis of Prohibition, 705.
 Social Courses in Universities, 686.
 Social Forces.
 Abnormality of Vice, The, 87.
 Better America Inspired or America Sober?, 695.
 Children's Bureau, The, 419.
 Dr. Koch's Visit to America, 90.
 Fit Opportunity in Infinite Variety, 67.
 Priest and Settlement, 89.
 President's Agricultural Commission, The, 603.
 Public Meetings and The Police, 1.
 Right View of the Child, The, 123.
 Saloon Commission, A, 525.
 Service of the Settlements, The, 89.
 Two Important Legislative Investigations, 143.
 Underfed Child in the Schools, The, 413.
 Unemployment Situation, The, 3.
 What We Believe, 635.
 Word to Social Workers in Behalf of Leisure, A, 301.
 Social Legislation in Kentucky, 534.
 Social Legislation in Maryland, 94.
 Social Opportunities of New York City High Schools, 133.
 Social Problems and the Congregational Church, 71.
 Social Settlements and New York's Lower East Side, 727.
 Social Side of the Public School, The, 487.
 Social Work in the Methodist Church, 305.
 Sociological Study of the Negro, A, 100.
 Solomons, Lucius L., 277.
 Some Hot Weather Suggestions, 595.
 Some Problems of Social Research, 247.
 Soper, George A., 592.
 Spargo, John, 592.

- Speranza, Gino C., 55.
 Spink, Alice, 425.
 State Supervision, 259.
 Steele, H. Wirt, 207, 223, 269.
 Stella, Antonio, 35.
 Stogy Industry in Pittsburgh, The, 433.
 Street Car Lines Employ 7,000 Men, 366.
 Studying Criminals in the Laboratory, 628.
 Summer School of Civics at Chicago, 588.
 Summer Session of the Chicago School, 481.
 Summer Session of the New York School of Philanthropy, 390, 530.

 Taber, Henry, 119.
 Tarbell, Ida M., 539, 546.
 Taylor, Graham, 199, 357, 396, 430, 531, 612, 627, 641, 689.
 Taylor, Graham Romeyn, 411, 539.
 Taylor, J. Madison, 533.
 Tenement Improvement in San Francisco, 226.
 Tenement Law for Baltimore, 700.
 Thomas, William I., 726.
 Tilley, David F., 223.
 Titlow, Harriet W., 425.
 To Combine Chicago Charities, 468.
 To Investigate Washington Jail, 303.
 To Promote Scientific Experiment, 207.
 To Reduce Infant Mortality, 285.
 To Reorganize the Children's Theater, 307.
 Towne, Arthur W., 722.
 Trade Schools for New York, 410.
 Trades of Women Who Work, 424.
 Traffic Squad at Union Square, The, 9.
 Trend of Things, 139, 217, 280, 379, 416, 464, 474, 509, 582, 599, 621, 633, 720.
 Trenton Boys Play Ball, 685.
 Troubles of Tenement Dwellers, The, 578.
 Tuberculosis.
 Bovine Tuberculosis in New York, 407.
 Chicago's Hospital Service, 585.
 Day Camp School of Outdoor Life, 516.
 Dr. Koch's Visit to America, 90.
 Gaining Health in the West, 232.
 Important Tuberculosis Legislation, 203.
 International Tuberculosis Congress, The, 697.
 National Tuberculosis Convention, 361.
 Newfoundland to Fight Tuberculosis, 477.
 New Idea in Social Work, A, 563.
 Passing of the Alaska Indians, 574.
 Positive Gains in the South, 367.
 Providence Fresh Air School, The, 97.
 Providence Tuberculosis Camp, 365.
 Public Health, 292.
 Regulation of Bovine Tuberculosis, 306.
 "What Good Will It Do?", 626.
 Tucker, Frank, 722.
 Tucker, Helen A., 100.
 Turkey's Debt to the West, 348.
 Two Important Legislative Investigations (Social Forces), 143.
 Two Volumes of the Art of Life Series, 234.

 Ufford, Walter S., 283, 384.
 Underfed Child in the Schools, (Social Forces), 413.

 Unemployment.
 Chicago Relief Problem, 6.
 East Side and the Late Panic, 426.
 Economies Among the Poor, 640.
 Europe's Unemployed Situation, 8.
 Feeding of the School Children, The, 371.
 Forecast From Washington, A, 638.
 Forecast of a Hard Winter, 625.
 Industrial Outlook in St. Louis, 698.
 Industrial Situation in Chicago, 637.
 Is There Land for the Unemployed, 341.
 More Work Though Irregular, 365.
 Out of Work in New York, 92.
 Public Meetings and the Police, 1.
 School Children's Lunch Room, The, 400.
 Slight Gain in Employment, 8.
 Street Car Lines Employ More Men, 366.
 Traffic Squad at Union Square, 9.
 Unemployment Situation, The, 3.
 Wanted—A Servant, 576.
 Winter's Outlook in Baltimore, 625.
 Winter's Outlook in St. Paul, 638.
 Winter Prospect in Buffalo, N. Y., The, 699.
 Unemployment Situation, The, (Social Forces), 3.
 Use of the Margin, 234.
 Utilized Social Forces, 644.

 Vacation Work in Wisconsin, 370.
 Van Dyke, Henry, 312.
 Van Kleeck, Mary, 36, 210, 425.
 Vaux, George, Jr., 524.
 Veiller, Lawrence, 375, 563.

 Wagner in Place of Rag Time, 609.
 Wald, Lillian D., 366, 371.
 Walter A. Wyckoff, Experimenter in Reality, 293.
 Wanted—A Servant, 576.
 Ward, Mrs. Humphry, 79.
 Wards of the State in Australia, 350.
 Warne, Frank Julian, 92.
 Water for an Institution, 120.
 Weller, Charles F., 393, 394, 395.
 Wells, H. G., 484.
 "What Good Will It Do?", 626.
 What Settlements Stand For, 508.
 What We Believe, (Social Forces), 635.
 Where Knowledge Fails, 234.
 White, Gaylord, 537.
 White, William A., 428.
 White, William J., 270, 271.
 Whitin, E. Stagg, 589.
 Whitin, James M., 228.
 Whittaker, W. H., 264.
 Wiggin, Kate Douglas, 80.
 Wight, Frank C., 76.
 Wilbur, Cressy L., 449.
 Wilkin, Robert J., 505.
 Wilkinson, Florence, 370.
 Williams, Mornay, 36.
 Wilson, Alexander M., 407, 468, 477.
 Wilson, George S., 223.
 Wines, Frederick H., 118.
 Wing, Frank E., 205.
 Winning the Boy, 703.

- Winter's Outlook in Baltimore, 625.
- Winter's Outlook in St. Paul, 638.
- Winter Prospect in Buffalo, N. Y., The, 699.
- Wise, Stephen S., 38, 276.
- Witherbee, Frank D., 232.
- Woerrischoffer, Carola, 39, 41.
- Wood, James, 722.
- Woods, Robert A., 223.
- Word to Social Workers in Behalf of Leisure,
A, (Social Forces), 301.
- Would Restrict Vivisection, 583.
- Wright, Carroll D., 247.
- Wyckoff, Walter, 293, 294.
- Wyle, Armand, 724.
- Zueblin, Charles, 210 612.



Social Forces

By the Editor

PUBLIC MEETINGS AND THE POLICE

Whether, under present conditions, public meetings in the interests of the unemployed are advisable is a fairly debatable question. That they should be suppressed by the police, however, and permits to hold them refused, seems to us contrary to sound public policy. The rights of free assemblage and free speech are of considerable importance in a democracy and should be guarded with jealous care. If public squares and parks are not to be available in the cities for such meetings, other public meeting places should be provided. The old-time town hall should be re-established in a form adapted to modern urban conditions. In England and on the continent there is for the most part no interference with such open-air gatherings for public discussion, however radical or revolutionary the views expressed. If violence, lawlessness or treason is advocated or suggested that is of course promptly dealt with as crime;

Assuming that the right to hold public meetings and to discuss freely any real or imaginary grievances is of fundamental importance, it is difficult to think of any subject in regard to which it should be asserted more vigorously, or acknowledged more freely, than the subject of unemployment. There is no other misfortune comparable to widespread and long continued unemployment. To workingmen and their families it is a very practical and very serious matter. Those who think that public meetings, through the press reports and otherwise, will serve to call attention to its terrible consequences, and help to stir either public officials or private employers to the importance of doing something about it, by any appropriate means within their power, will naturally find it difficult to see why they should not be encouraged to hold them.

It is to be urged against such gatherings that agitators may take advantage of them to inflame the mind of the public, that a desire may be fomented for impracticable or even injurious measures, that a demand for public relief works may gain such headway as to force municipal or state authorities into extravagant, ill-considered or unsound enterprises, and that

under the excitement of public discussion there may be personal attacks upon public officials or citizens which will be interpreted by fanatical and unbalanced listeners as encouragement to violence. On some such grounds reasonable persons may advise against such meetings and personally refuse to take part in them. It is one thing, however, to oppose the holding of public meetings and quite another to uphold the park and police authorities in refusing to permit them, and to justify drastic methods of preventing them. Under the apprehension of anarchism, we have come to entrust our police departments with a degree of arbitrary power in the matter of breaking up assemblages of citizens which is greater than is found necessary in other civilized countries, and we are strangely indifferent to the manner in which they are exercising it. As a result of police methods several persons besides the confessed murderer in Bellevue Hospital have "fancied grievances" of the kind which he says led him to make his murderous attack. An unnecessary blow from a policeman in uniform will do more to disturb the mental equilibrium of an "addled" embryonic anarchist than any address by Mr. Hunter or his associates.

The Union Square meeting was called by a committee with whose aims we are by no means in accord. It was a socialistic demonstration, and its immediate object was to adopt resolutions, after several addresses had been made, calling on the city and state of New York to furnish work to the unemployed. We do not believe that any useful purpose would have been served by the adoption of these resolutions, or the delivery of the addresses by the socialist leaders. It is, however, quite possible for a perfectly law abiding and intelligent person to take the contrary view. To hold that the city should inaugurate important municipal undertakings in a time of general unemployment is certainly neither criminal nor without respectable precedent, and those who take that view may very naturally seek by public demonstrations, open air meetings, and other similar means to win converts for it. If an assemblage had been held without a permit that would doubtless have been unlawful but it was not unlawful for any person to appear upon or pass through the streets, and on and about Union Square on Saturday afternoon there are likely to be usually several thousand persons on quite legitimate business.

The organizers of the Union Square meeting were disingenuous in calling it a demonstration of the unemployed. A socialist organ announced that invitations were freely circulated in the cheap lodging houses and saloons of the East Side. Nevertheless the people who appeared gave little evidence of need or distress. A large proportion of them appear to have been drawn by a desire to learn anything which the meeting might show about the unemployed, but primarily it was a socialist demonstration, and was so recognized by the Central Federated Union which refused to participate in it.

Failing to get a permit the committee had sought an injunction to prevent interference by the police with what they claimed as their rights. When this was refused some of the organizers vainly sought arrest as a means of bringing their claim into court. The meeting was not held, and so far as the crowds on the streets, the speakers and the committee in charge of arrange-

ments are concerned, the police met with no resistance or difficulty. As one policeman intimated, a handful of rough longshoremen would have been harder to deal with than the whole twenty thousand. The details of the tragedy with which the events of the afternoon came to an end we need not here discuss. It gives no more justification for abridging the rights of free assemblage and free speech than the shocking murder of the Denver priest a few weeks ago gives for abridging the freedom of worship.

THE UNEMPLOYMENT SITUATION

Contrary to an opinion which has gained some currency, this journal has not by any means been disposed to underestimate the gravity of this winter's problem of unemployment. Some weeks ago we estimated the number of homeless men in New York who were not in regular employment at 35,000. The *New York Times* and later the *Independent* represented that we had estimated the total number of the unemployed in New York city at 35,000. Both publications corrected the error but correction seldom overtakes the error after which it is sent. We have been constantly seeking, by interviews and correspondence with representatives of charitable societies, employment agencies, labor unions, public school principals, hospitals and dispensaries, and other sources of information, to keep in touch with labor conditions, especially with all evidences of actual distress resulting from industrial conditions. The burden on the charitable agencies is much greater than in any recent year, probably twice as great as it has been at the corresponding time of any winter in the past twelve years. This increase of work for charitable agencies, however, gives no complete measure of the burden on the community. That falls mainly on families that do not apply for relief. It is only when lack of employment leads to that degree of distress which compels application to relief societies that charity becomes responsible. We have not believed that charity, organized or unorganized, can do much towards the solution of the problem of unemployment. It has no control over its causes, and cannot bring it to an end.

In the interests of the unemployed and their families we have considered it inadvisable to suggest or advocate the substitution of artificial employment on a large scale for ordinary relief until a condition is reached in which savings and other resources are exhausted; until labor organizations can no longer provide for their idle members; until general unemployment means deprivation of the necessities of life for large numbers who would not be in distress for other reasons. We do not believe such a condition to exist in any of the large cities of this country at the present time. While the evidence is not conclusive, we have gained the impression that on the whole conditions are now neither better nor worse than they were three months ago. This means that many who were then idle have now found work, but that others who are still idle have gradually used up their savings and are now in serious straits and that these two opposing tendencies very nearly balance. There is no alarming increase in the applications for relief. On the contrary there is some decrease. Hospitals and dispensaries have only their normal quota, indicating that there is no great amount of sickness due to lack of food or shelter. School principals as a rule have not

observed any appreciable amount of absence which can be attributed to poverty. Savings banks report that the excess of withdrawals over deposits is less noticeable. This cumulative testimony to the extraordinary reserve strength of the workingmen comes from every source from which we have been able to obtain definite information. The natural inference is that when the trouble began in the autumn the average workingman had more money in his possession than was generally supposed. Bankers have even attributed the financial stringency in part to this fact and to the failure of this comparatively opulent laborer to open a bank account for his surplus earnings. It has proved at any rate a most fortunate thing that in this period of slack work, laborers have had something to fall back upon, and it will be fortunate if work begins before all such resources have been exhausted. Certainly as yet there has been no general resumption of industry or building operations and the best informed opinion is that we may expect only very slight improvement for some months to come. The problem is one with which directors of railways and factories, bankers and financiers, and officials responsible for the making of public contracts must deal. Philanthropy can mitigate the distress into which individuals and families are brought when it reaches the point of destitution, but it has no remedy for financial and industrial failure. Whatever explanation we may adopt of the panic which was signalized by the suspension of the Knickerbocker Trust Company in October, it is certain that its consequences have fallen upon many who were in no way responsible for it. It would be pleasant to believe that the reopening of this trust company last week marked the end of the period of suffering and anxiety. Unfortunately recovery from the effects of a panic is usually painful and slow.

These considerations suggest that, looking to the past in a humble and contrite spirit, and looking ahead with patience and courage, we must recognize that for some time in the future we shall be confronted with the effects of the crisis through which our industries and financial institutions have passed. Every possible encouragement should be given to the early prosecution of public and private undertakings for which funds can be provided. Those who plan buildings or the expansion of manufacture should not wait too long for lower rates of interest or lower wages. They should go ahead, if they can afford it and if the money can be secured, drawing if necessary on the accumulations of the fat years, influenced in part as always by their prospective profits, and not ashamed to be influenced also in part by the realization that they are lessening the number of the unemployed and thus contributing very directly to the common welfare.

CHARITIES

AND The Commons

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

BROOKLYN TO HAVE CONGESTION EXHIBIT

The Congestion Show has been a success. The original material prepared by the committee and the exhibits by older organizations have been seen and studied by thousands of men and women. Conspicuous among them have been men in public life from Governor Hughes, the first night, down through a long list of state, city and borough officials. The newspaper discussion which it has aroused is significant of the impression which it has made on the public mind. In their news columns and editorially the papers have been full of it. Magazines have arranged for careful articles on it, even the London papers, as reported by cable, are giving it editorial attention. CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, on other pages of this issue, issues the first interpretation of it as a whole, under the direction of John Martin and with the co-operation of Benjamin C. Marsh, the executive secretary.

Requests that the exhibit be taken about the country have been received from many cities. Only one such invitation has been accepted at the time of writing. Brooklyn, which forms so large a part of Greater New York physically, but so detached and unrelated a community in social measurement, is to have it beginning April 6 at the Brooklyn Institute of Arts, 174 Montague street. Some new material for Brooklyn will be added, and the conferences will contrast and compare conditions in the two boroughs.

The general committee in charge for Brooklyn is composed of the following:

Frederick B. Pratt, chairman; Miss Mary E. Dreier, Dr. F. W. Atkinson, Prof. Frank-

lin W. Hooper, Miss Ethel Eames, William I. Nichols, Alfred J. Boulton, Alfred T. White, E. W. Ordway, Judson D. Wall, Frank Lyman, Laura A. Steele, A. W. Dennen, Miss Mabel Hastings, John B. Creighton, Miss Elizabeth Dutcher, Martin A. Meyer, William G. Low, Miss Jane E. Robbins, Bird S. Coler, Mrs. Camden C. Dike, Mrs. W. A. White, G. D. Matthews, Gardiner Matthews, George E. Lovett, Edward B. Shallow, Charles E. Teale, Charles E. Schieren, Irving T. Bush, Raymond M. Ingersol and Arthur E. Wakeman.

NEW YORK'S NEED FOR A NEW ASYLUM

Everybody in New York state, including the legislative committee in charge, is agreed that the new custodial asylum for the feeble minded and epileptic of the state noted in Dr. Johnson's review of March 21, is urgently needed. Everybody approves the location selected by the commission. It is near Haverstraw, within easy reach of New York and the southeastern portion of the state, from which over fifty per cent of all the patients of this class come to the existing state institutions. The site itself is ideal for a colony where outdoor life and work is to be the key to successful treatment.

But it is estimated that there may be a shortage in the indirect revenues of the state this year. Consequently the finance committee of the senate—the bill passed the assembly unanimously—appears to be unwilling to carry, unless the people of the state clearly show that they will support it in so doing, the responsibility of adding to the budget the \$188,000 required to purchase the site for the colony.

It is a matter of plain business policy. The options on the site, secured at very reasonable prices before it was known that the state would be the purchaser, expire before another legislature meets. Next year this site will cost more money. No other site equaling it has been found. The 1,800 patients now improperly cared for in almshouses can do almost nothing for themselves. In the state colony they would be adequately cared for, and, with abundant land for tillage, they would become measurably self-supporting. Of the thousands of destitute defectives for whom we have not yet provided even the protection of the almshouse, many, both male and female of suitable age, are or will become prolific breeders of degenerates. Every such offspring is likely (from carefully studied past experience) to become a burden on the state either as criminal or as dependent.

Cut the acreage (1,200) to 500, as will be the natural suggestion in a time of financial stress, and the cost is reduced to perhaps \$120,000. The central and indispensable sections of the site cost more in proportion than the outlying portions. The colony now becomes a herding place; proper treatment and classification is impossible, and self maintenance by agriculture, brick-making, etc., is precluded. Ultimately more land would simply have to be secured at premium prices.

Cut out the source of gravity water supply, a water shed of one square mile, costing \$9,000, and the excess cost of pumping water on the property, with coal even at present prices—nobody knows what it will cost twenty years hence,—will more than equal the interest on the \$9,000. And the opportunity for adequate fire protection will be lost.

There is not a single way of looking at the postponement of purchase, or the curtailment of the acreage, which does not mean in the long run heavily increased cost to the state.

The people of the state will support the finance committee in shouldering

the whole \$188,000 now. Governor Hughes stated in his first message that there is no better test of a state administration than is afforded by its care of the sick, the feeble minded, and the insane.

CHICAGO'S

RELIEF PROBLEM

Relief work in Chicago showed little sign of diminishing in March. The prediction of the superintendent of the Municipal Lodging House, made in January and February, has been borne out by an even larger increase in March than that anticipated. The "thousand a night" reached an average of 1,100 a night during the early part of March, and the prospect is that the month will show a total of over 30,000 lodgings as compared with 2,754 in March, 1907. For years the statistics at the lodging house show that March is the heaviest month, and a little encouragement may be taken from the fact that the increase this year is not so great proportionally as last year; in March, 1907, nearly three times as many lodgings were given as in February; this year, with the estimate of 30,000, March will only have half again as many as in February. A striking way of indicating the general increase of this year over last, however, is seen in the fact that every night in March of this year more lodgings were given than during the whole month of February, 1907. The average stay of a lodger is fifteen days this year as compared with three last year. Relief for families was given by the county agent to 7,932 families in February, 1908, and to 3,326 in the same month last year.

The Bureau of Charities reports that in the first ten days of March applications were received from about 1,300 families, the number for the whole month in 1907 totalling only 1,064. These 1,300 applications in the first ten days of March are far less than the number received in the first ten days of February, but doubtless this can largely be explained by the fact that in March there has been little publicity concerning relief plans, while in the early part of February there were full newspaper reports of the efforts by

business men to raise \$100,000, of the free coal given by a large merchant, and of the lodging house enterprise which one newspaper maintained and exploited in its columns.

The Relief and Aid Society had upon its lists during the four months, November, 1907-February, 1908, no less than 2,544 families, more than the number for the whole year November 1, 1906-1907, when the total was 2,483. Comparing the period November 1, 1907 to March 14, 1908, with the same period one year ago, the society finds that it expended in relief \$8,207 last year and \$16,087 this year, an increase of ninety-six per cent. Cost of administration for the same periods was \$7,317 last year and \$9,294 this year, an increase of twenty-seven per cent. The top floor of the Relief and Aid Society building has been converted into an old clothes receiving and distributing place. Old shoes have proved not only a direct relief, but afforded employment for out-of-work shoemakers.

The most interesting work undertaken by the Relief and Aid Society has been street cleaning, not by homeless men, but by men with families dependent upon upon them. The city furnishes superintendents and also carts away the sweepings. The Citizens Street Cleaning Bureau provides the brooms and other tools. B. E. Rosing, of the Eli Bates House social settlement is in general charge and determines the streets to be cleaned. These are selected with a view to giving the less privileged neighborhoods a chance to share in the cleanliness which usually is lavished on well-to-do districts. The settlement gymnasium is used as lunch headquarters. The men bring their own luncheons and two cups of coffee are sold for five cents. The pay is fifteen cents an hour, and the larger part of the men are using their earnings for rent. The men at work in this street cleaning scheme are from families which the society would in any event have to help. The amount of work is restricted, each man being allowed two or three days at a time. At the expiration of this their pleadings for a longer chance are most pathetic.

A meeting of the Social Service Club

held on March 16 was devoted entirely to a conference upon the situation and the ways in which the various organizations are meeting it. An interesting exhibit was prepared by Superintendent Sherman C. Kingsley of the Relief and Aid Society, in the shape of a chart showing that according to the society's records the amount of relief this year is twice as much as last year, and that the increase is almost entirely due to non-employment.

Discussion arose over the number of families receiving relief from the country agent's office. Representing that agency, Victor Young declared his belief that ninety per cent of the families that receive assistance during the year are on the books of the county agent. Mr. Kingsley estimated seventy-five per cent. Mr. Bicknell of the Bureau of Charities said that if it is true that seventy-five to ninety per cent of the families assisted are investigated and recorded both by the county agent and one or more of the charitable organizations, then there is a very great waste of energy and unnecessary expense. He suggested that a central registration plan should be adopted and that every family assisted should be registered at the central office, together with the name of the society that is taking care of the family. Each society would then be expected to provide adequate assistance to its own families and to refer applicants from other societies back to the proper source of help.

The vital and fundamental importance of a scheme for central registration is felt by everyone connected in any way with relief work in Chicago. Its need has been increasingly urgent for years, and the lack of such an arrangement has greatly hindered Chicago's growth along modern lines of philanthropic and social work. Miss Harriett Fulmer, of the Visiting Nurses Association, and president of the Social Service Club was authorized to appoint a committee of seven to study the situation and suggest the plan for central registration. In directing its attention to this matter, there is no doubt that the Social Service Club has an opportunity to render a most important service to the community.

SLIGHT GAIN IN EMPLOYMENT

A careful review of the unemployment situation in New York city warrants the opinion, corroborated from many well-advised sources, that there has been slight improvement over conditions existing at the first of the year. There is more work now but not nearly enough to support the army of men and women who have been unemployed for four or five months.

Savings are now becoming exhausted and many families, with considerable personal resources, are, for the first time, falling into absolute want and most reluctantly seeking charitable assistance. Applications for relief to the various charitable societies, churches, and settlements have probably not been so heavy in March as in February. It is apparent, however, that the hard times have caused widespread suffering on the part of families who will not appeal for charity. Fine weather and more frequent success in securing temporary employment for the past two weeks has rendered their lot less severe. They have survived the needs of winter, and are now much more hopeful of the future. Consequently they are less likely to appeal for aid, now than when, in fact, their personal resources were greater.

In those sections of the city in which poverty is least prevalent, normally, the recovery has been most rapid, and the outlook is now the brightest.

EUROPE'S UNEMPLOYED SITUATION

Europe is meeting the problem of the unemployed in many ways. There are large numbers of people without work in Vienna, Berlin, Amsterdam and The Hague. In each city the solution is being sought with more or less public assistance. The causes are ascribed to conditions in America. It is stated that America is not buying goods and consequently there is no work; there have been heavy losses in American securities, and consequently there is no money for enterprise.

Vienna is using street car transfers to

acquaint her people with the Municipal Employment Bureau and informing them through this medium of the branch stations throughout the city where positions will be found for applicants without charge. All kinds of labor will be assisted, from skilled mechanics to domestics. In Berlin, the popular morning paper, reprints a special afternoon edition containing only the "help wanted" advertisements and distributes this sheet of nearly four pages of classified "wants" free of charge on street corners. Great crowds of working people make use of this means. The advertisements are not extraordinary either in number or kind. The usual number of domestic servants are wanted and skilled labor is advertised for mostly among the men. The number of young girls asked for to care for children after school hours is rather disproportionately large but hardly conclusive in its evidence except that almost always a girl is desired who has been confirmed.

In Holland, there is an attempt to put into practice a new idea. The insurance for the unemployed is brought into play. In Amsterdam, the cause of distress is the drop in the diamond industry which throws out of work thousands of skilled diamond cutters. Labor troubles among the longshoremen and their employers who work them on the *padrone* system, contribute also to the lack of employment. The insurance system as working in Amsterdam now is a combination of the trades union and the city. The city appropriates 6,000 guilders (about \$3,000) annually for the insurance fund. The city increases by one-half the amount allowed each man by the unions. This method is believed to be the most satisfactory for determining the deserving as it is in the interests of the union to cease payments as soon as possible. In The Hague this agreement between city and labor unions has not been reached as The Hague would only contribute on condition that the unions would divide equally between the union and non-union workingmen. The unions would not consent to do this so the insurance in The Hague is wholly a matter of the union's support of its own unemployed. In Am-

sterdam, a fund of two hundred thousand guilders is now being raised by popular subscription for the alleviation of distress, and collections are being made in the streets. Both this fund and that in the hands of the union on behalf of the city are controlled by a committee of five. Two of these are appointed by the municipality and two by the trades union. The committee itself appointed a secretary who acts in executive capacity. There are eleven unions with three thousand members interested in the fund. In the building trades each individual pays ten to twenty cents weekly (Dutch money) to the union fund. When out of work, each member receives fifty to sixty cents per day plus the municipal increase which in these trades is about one hundred per cent. The commission determines upon the amount of increase in each trade. Unemployed printers receive one guilder a day and when employed, pay only two or three cents a week to the union fund. In 1908, three per cent of printers are out of work and in the building trades, fifty to sixty per cent are out. The limit of help is fifty days in the year. The system is known as the Ghent system.

The rise in prices contributes to the general depression and the number of unemployed is described by Europeans to be many times as large as ever known before.

The Traffic Squad at Union Square

Arthur P. Kellogg

At 2 o'clock last Saturday afternoon Union Square, New York, was filled with people called out by an announcement of a great meeting of the unemployed. As the crowds grew they were quickly cleared away into the broad surrounding streets by the police who, in all good nature, used their old command to "move on" and quite naturally set them in motion. Thousands strolled slowly round the square, doing nothing, saying little, simply marching on and waiting for something to happen.

It was not a convincing crowd if the

object of its gathering had been to show an overwhelming number of unemployed—the "hungry idlers, park dwellers and street wanderers," in the words of *Vorwaerts*. Everyone near Union Square, remembering the meeting, had gone there after lunch. Not being allowed to stand and watch, they joined in the procession. There were business men, clerks, well-dressed people and a good sprinkling of women, many of them apparently stenographers and the like from the business houses which look down round about. But by far the greater number of the men were of the stunted, foreign type which has grown to stand for the factory and sweatshop workers of a large city. If they were out of work they were dressed as in the busiest season when they congregate noons before the buildings on the side streets in this neighborhood where half the country's ready-made garments are fashioned. The predominance of Jewish faces on this, their Sabbath, and the fact that it was not only Saturday, but Saturday afternoon when so much of New York has a half holiday, raised doubts as to the number of really idle men present.

Here and there a card in a man's hat—more often a boy's hat—demanded work. Almost as often one saw the police ticket which the reporters wore to make passage back and forth through the lines easy. Once in a long time there was a vagrant, the city kind who sleeps in this very square. Inside the lines camera men were scurrying about and the trolley cars worming carefully through the procession where it crossed their tracks at the ends of the square.

Half the men were smoking, many were accompanied by women and here and there was a child in its father's arms. It was as peaceful and aimless and slow a parade as that which moves up and down Fifth avenue on Easter morning. During the half hour it marched the sun came out, gleaming on the rubber coats of the policemen and the puddles from the morning showers which the crowd splashed on each other as a troop of boys might. Pretty nearly everyone seemed to be going on merely to see if

there would be a meeting after all. The police were good-natured, insisting merely that no one stand still and showing not half the effective officiousness of the ordinary crossing cop at a busy corner. Perched on the porch of the little public comfort station at the north end of the square was Inspector Max Schmittberger, autocrat of the traffic squad, more police, and another score of reporters.

The parade, an irregular eight or ten deep, reached not quite around the square. Toward the break which made its unformed head, about 2:30, came Robert Hunter and some companions, from a side street off Broadway. Hunter and Bruno L. Zimm, who were to have spoken, had seen Schmittberger earlier and asked if they were to be allowed to speak. The inspector refused on the ground that such a meeting could not be held without a permit. The members of the committee which had asked them to come, and had failed to secure a permit, after all its announcements had been made, were nowhere to be found.

As Hunter and his companions joined the line, almost at the front, a few men struck up the Marseillaise. Just about that time the first mounted police trotted up before the inspector and formed in line. As the parade moved down Broadway and around the south end of the square, little bands here and there sang a few lines of the song, quavering off into silence, then piping up again. When the head of the column drew near the inspector's stand at the north end, the song became a little more determined and the men marched a little better. Numbers of people said that it needed only a fife and drum to give life to the crowd and set them stepping off briskly around the square in the sunlight. If there was an atom of serious purpose of any kind anywhere it did not show.

But just then a policeman swinging his long night stick, and shouting, ran at the head of the column and scattered them, every last man, into the street. As they looked back, wondering, there was a clattering of hoofs and down drove the mounted men, clubs swinging, horses curvetting over the heads of the crowd.

Schmittberger, so the reporters near him say, took the singing, and the singing of the Marseillaise in particular, to herald violence, and ordered his men to disperse the whole gathering.

The square, and Broadway and Fourth avenue flanking it, were cleared in a twinkling, and the people moved slowly down the side streets. To those in front of the horses it appeared that they were being galloped upon. Others saw more plainly that after the first charge the movement really was slow and the animals were only plunging up and down under the riders' tricky use of a tight curb in front and the spurs behind. The horsemen rode solidly across the streets and sidewalks, driving the people off steps and porches, pushing them on, scattering them. Apparently few were hurt by the swinging clubs and the receding crowds, nimble from auto-dodging habits, were able to escape trampling by the horses. The camera men ran wildly about, mounting ladders carried by their attendants, and taking snap-shots as the police drove women and their protesting escorts off other people's front steps in sleepy old Irving Place, and one blue-coat rode into the lobby of the Academy of Music and emptied it of those who had sought shelter there.

Gradually the people dispersed and the police returned, one at a time, to the square. It was all over. There was not a permit and the police, under orders of Schmittberger, and Schmittberger, under orders of his chief, had not permitted a meeting. There could be no doubt of that.

As the square settled back to its normal uses, a few couples were seated here and there again on the park benches. On the curb around the fountain in the center, where later the Park Department will set out gorgeous tulips to bloom for the rest and recreation of the people, were two Jewish tailors, Selig Silverstein, a boy of 19, known as Cohen in Bielestok, Russia, whence he came, and Ignatz Hildebrandt, a Bavarian. Suddenly Silverstein got up holding something which the bystanders all agreed afterward looked like a grapefruit. For a second it sputtered in his hand, a crude, home-

made bomb, of ordinary gunpowder in a piece of brass tubing filled with nails. Then it went off before he could throw it at a file of police a few feet away. The police were unhurt. Hildebrandt twitched a few times and lay dead. Silverstein, one arm and both eyes gone, his head and body gashed with the nails, was still conscious and declared he meant to blow up the police who had clubbed him, he said, last week when he tried to make a speech. He, too, lacked a permit. Very likely he had never heard of one. Very likely, too, he was preaching open anarchy, for that was his belief.

The square and the streets swarmed again in a jiffy. Bellevue ambulances came clanging from one direction and headquarters automobiles from another. More police poured in from every side. The surgeons were busied for a time beside the winter brown of the tulip beds, and the crowds again were pushed back and scattered. For hours afterward men and women going about their business in the neighborhood, found a policeman every few feet and the mounted men, whose horses are said to equal those of any crack cavalry regiment in the world, riding slowly up and down on the sidewalks. Did a man start diagonally across to his office or stop to look in a shop window, he was told to "move on." Now, for the first time that day, the command was resisted, and there were heated arguments. Many refused at first to go this way or not to go that, but not claiming to be of the unemployed or of the socialists or even of the curiosity seekers, all of whom held the field early in the afternoon, they shortly gave in to authority with the easy tolerance of the New York public, and moved on.

The bomb throwing was as badly planned and executed as were the events which preceded it. The meeting fizzled out for lack of direction, and the men who called it were not present. In fact the only leadership anywhere apparent was among the police who treated New York to the unwonted spectacle of mounted men charging on peaceful crowds of citizens, not a few of whom were women. The meeting, the parade, the policing and the killing were as clumsily done as

possible throughout and had as little connection with problems of unemployment as could well be imagined.

The meeting was called by the Conference Committee of Unemployed, a newly formed body not known to have definite organization but said to be composed of leaders and organizers of the Socialist Party, all of whom are engaged in their usual occupations. The plan was to gather in the square thousands of men out of work, to address them from cart-tails and to show by their numbers the extent of unemployment and the need for extraordinary city work.

The meeting was called in language temperate enough, but by the time the summons had passed through the editorial rooms of *Vorwaerts*, a radical journal of unrest, it became "a dangerous hunger march . . . so that these dirty rich should see and sympathize." When the committee, after making its announcements, fixing the hour and place, asked for a permit, it was refused. Park Commissioner Smith told them that "the parks belong to the people for rest and recreation and not for the purpose of holding mass meetings." He sent them to Police Commissioner Bingham who, in turn, sent them back. Both departments shirked when it came to making the actual refusal. So Friday night the committee was without a permit and understood that the police would not permit the gathering. It was accordingly called off, so its members say. An announcement to this effect did not reach the public, and would have been too late anyway. The committee had set the whole thing going before it even tried to secure a permit. When the time came for the meeting not one of its members was present, it is said. That it had really called the meeting off and cancelled the arrangements may be doubted from the appearance of moving vans from which the speeches were to have been made. The drivers refused to leave and were arrested.

That night every policeman on Manhattan Island was on duty, either about the streets or in reserve at the station houses. The general order was "with night sticks and without belts." That

order, had soldiers been the patrolmen, would have read, "with bayonets fixed." The anarchist and socialist leaders denied ever hearing of Silverstein, though the police said he had letters from Emma Goldman's husband, and Schmittberger told a reporter: "The people of New York have now had an object lesson, and I think that it ought to teach them that it is better for everybody concerned that rabidness of speech and rabidness of action should be suppressed. We have been too lenient, we have given advocates of violence too much leeway."

Bibliography of Books on the Blind

John F. Bledsoe

In 1829 the first school for the blind in America was incorporated at Boston. Two years later Dr. Samuel G. Howe, a young physician of that city, was chosen as director, and sent abroad to gather information concerning the methods of instructing the blind then in vogue at the institutions in Europe. After spending about a year on his mission, he returned to America, bringing with him two blind teachers, and samples of books and maps used in the instruction of the blind. These few books and appliances formed the nucleus of the library of which this¹ is a partial bibliography.

The work of collecting and compiling is very complete in its plan and execution and shows the touch of a master hand. The large mass of material in English

is classified under the following heads, as shown by the table of contents in the bibliography which follows:

1. Adult blind; (a) employment, (b) homes and working homes, (c) industrial training; 2, Biography of the blind; 3, Books by blind authors; 4, Blind in literature; 5, Blindness: cause; 6, Blindness: effect; 7, Color blindness; 8, Deaf-blind; 9, Education of the blind; (a) bibliography; (b) biography of educators; (c) libraries and books; (d) printing; (e) reports, history, etc.; 10, Specimens of embossed type.

Space does not permit of anything like a critical review, but one needs no further evidence than this table of contents to convince him that the library abounds in both secondary and original sources.

There are newspaper clippings, magazine articles, pamphlets, and books of almost every description bearing upon the subject of the blind. There are seventy-nine volumes of letters received at the Perkins Institution in connection with the business of the school, together with the copies of letters written by Dr. Howe and his successors from 1829-1907.

If everything else that has been written on the education of the blind in America except these letters were destroyed, it would be possible to write a fairly accurate history of the work for the blind in this country. Add to these the file of reports of American schools for the blind, which is the most complete in existence, and it would be difficult to find a richer set of original sources bearing upon any subject.

When it is remembered that this library contains books in twenty-two languages relating to the blind, the reader begins to appreciate the great work that has been done for future generations in making this collection.

¹ A Bibliography of the Books in English in the Special Reference Library of Books Relating to the Blind, compiled under the direction of the late Michael Anagnos, at the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind. This book may be obtained at publisher's prices through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

The Effect of Emigration Upon Italy¹

"Ci manca la mano d'opera"
"We lack the working hand"

Antonio Mangano

A labor movement of such huge proportions as that in progress to-day in the southern provinces of Italy cannot fail to be fraught with good and evil results to the whole country and its inhabitants. The first and most natural effect, however, has been an increase in wages for the agricultural laborers in sections where the supply of workers is low because of the large numbers who have emigrated. Twenty or more years ago, when these provinces contained the tens of thousands of toilers who are now using their strength for the industrial prosperity of other countries, it was the *contadino's* part to beg the landowner for a day's work, and to accept without a murmur two *carini* or sixteen cents a day, and all manner of haughtiness and arrogance with it. Over-population and a high birth rate rendered the supply of labor greater than the demand and the more favored class took advantage of this. But when it was known that great railways were to be built across the American continent, that our cities were in need of laborers, and that they would receive from five to seven, and even ten times as much for their toil as at home, the most adventurous crossed the ocean, and soon the money they sent back proved their success. Then the spirits of men began to rise; the little stream became a mighty river.

The landowners at first paid little heed to this steady outflow of men. There were still plenty whom necessity made willing to till their fields from dawn till dark at the old wage. But when, in 1905, the Abruzzi and Molise lost in

¹Two installments of Mr. Mangano's articles were published in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for January 4 and February 1. Two more will appear in May and June.



A TOILER OF TIVOLI.

round numbers 50,000 men and 10,000 women; the Campagna 65,000 men and 19,000 women; the Basilicata 17,000 men and 1,600 women; Calabria 56,000 men and 8,000 women; and Sicily 81,000 men and 25,000 women, the tables turned, competition shifted from the employe to the employer, and the landowners were compelled to offer two or three francs a day in order to secure men to raise the most necessary crops. Twenty years ago, from sixteen to twenty-five cents a day was the usual wage of a peasant. To-day, as a direct result of emigration, wages have increased fifty per cent, and in some localities men cannot be hired for less than three times the amount they formerly received. In this way peasants who have never left their homes are benefited by the emigration of others. And even at this increased wage, the landholders are lamenting the fact that many of their fields lie unworked because of the lack of hands to cultivate the soil and tend the vineyards, and they are begging the government to pass laws restricting peasant emigration.

Emigration and its results is a live

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topic of conversation among all classes of society in Italy. I have witnessed many a hot discussion in the town secretary's office when I was gleaning statistics. Several men always followed the stranger into the office and stood by, interested listeners until appealed to for their opinions. I was surprised to discover how well posted nine out of every ten are, with definite, well thought-out convictions, favorable or unfavorable to the movement according to their social position. A southern landlord in the province of Molise told me, with bristling mustache and keen flashing eyes, that every year he is finding it more difficult to secure laborers to raise his wheat, and he is compelled to pay such as are available three times as much as he ever did before.

"Why, my dear sir," said he, "we have simply come to the utmost limit in these parts. We cannot go on in this way any longer. The government must help us, and that very soon. We poor landholders are at the mercy of the few able-bodied men who remain. But (with a deprecatory shrug) we cannot expect anything from the government at Rome. They do not think of us; they are engrossed too much in the interests of northern Italy."

I turned to Pietro, a brawny workman, who stood listening and smiling to himself, with his hands in his pockets.

"Well, and what do you think of this emigration to America?" I asked.

He straightened involuntarily, the hands came out of his pockets to assist his rapid gesticulatory Italian.

"Ah! Signor, emigration is one great blessing to our country. What would all of these people do here, except to live more wretchedly, if that were possible, while the *latifondisti* (landowners) are fattening upon their life-blood! The fact is, if it hadn't been for emigration, we must have ended by eating one another up. Once there was no money in this town. Now we all have a little and we poor *contadini* don't have to go to the *padrone* and beg a loan and pay him fifty per cent on it. No! No! No one can doubt that emigration is a great blessing!"

These answers are from opposite points of view, but each voiced the feeling of his class I found upon making similar inquiry in all the forty or fifty towns I visited. Once I did find an affable *civile* who looked at the subject apart from his own personal interests. The usual discussion was waxing hot, when he ended it by this impartial remark: "Emigration is indeed a blessing for the one who emigrates, for he can earn more money and his family can live more comfortably. But for the country, it is an evil, for we are fast losing our working population."

The belated introduction of machinery in farm work is directly due to emigration. Progressive landowners who study the situation are beginning to realize that to work their soil with profit, or even at all, machines must take the place of departed laborers, and so throughout the province of Molise and elsewhere are found here and there modern reapers, thrashers, ploughs and cultivators, objects of wonder to the entire country-side. This use of modern implements is still too new to see any great changes in agriculture, and their cost makes such tools too expensive for the small landowner or peasant proprietor. I quote the royal commissioner of emigration, Signor Adolfo Rossi, a man of keen intelligence and thorough knowledge of his department, one who is greatly interested in the peasants and who is studying how to lighten their burdens and otherwise improve their lot. He is constantly telling parliament that legislation to restrict peasant emigration will do no good; the government itself must adopt measures to better the working and living conditions of the poor, or they will continue to desert their native land. I quote from him when I say that the percentage of violent crimes, especially blood crimes, is much lower than a few years ago, and he considers this due to the fact that money sent or brought back by emigrants reduces misery and despair, so often the cause of desperate deeds. Usury in all its pernicious forms is also fast disappearing, especially in this same province of the Molise. As Pietro said, the *contadini* do not borrow money exclusively



LEAVING NAPLES FOR AMERICA.

Many have been in America and are now returning. They can be distinguished by their new clothes.

from the *padrone* or the steamship agents. Often there are prosperous emigrants who have returned and opened a little store, a barber shop, or purchased a small property, who are glad to loan their less fortunate neighbors a small sum without interest. More frequently the loans come across the ocean from friends or relatives in America, particularly if the peasant desires to emigrate. I know personally an Italian tailor in Brooklyn who has helped five of his fellow-townsmen to come to America by sending them the price of their passage and waiting until they could repay him, without charging a cent of interest. The last man he helped is a musician, who evidently came second class since the tailor him \$60 for his ticket.

Another point of interest to me was to discover what change, if any, had been made in the life and manners of the returned emigrant; how he is regarded by those who knew him before and after, so to speak. The consensus of opinion seemed to be that the returned emigrant dresses and carries himself much better than formerly, that he is intellectually awakened, has more cleanly habits, more life and spirit, and

that he will not, as a rule, be willing to put his neck under the yoke again and be content with his former life. His visit to his native land is of short duration, usually during the dull winter season, and he returns to America in the spring though there are those who remain two or three years.

Only last month I was talking with a well known Italian banker and commission merchant of Naples, who was in New York on a brief business trip. He told me that the hundreds of thousands of Italian laborers who left our shores last November during the financial panic and consequent industrial depression, are causing the Italian government grave concern. Thousands are congregated at Naples, rapidly depleting the food-supply, hardly adequate for the inhabitants because of abandoned, untilled fields, and absolutely refusing to comply with the government's request that they return to their own little hill-towns. Instead, these returned emigrants are demanding that the government furnish them work on public improvements,—quite American this sounds,—for the winter months. It is probable that nearly all of these will return to America, as the steam-

ship companies report exceedingly large steerage lists booked for April and May sailings from Genoa and Naples to New York.

I believe one of the most wholesome effects of emigration is this "more life and spirit" just mentioned, for here are the hopeful beginnings of a proper appreciation of the dignity and worth of a man and his work. The *contadini's* contact with democratic, individualistic America with its opportunities for every industrious man, no matter how lowly his birth, to become a successful, respected citizen, is creating self-respect and ambition. A spirit of hope and independence is stirring these down-trodden masses, who have been considered no better than pack-animals for centuries, and they are awakening at last to their right and the possibility of progress. That which socialism has not been able to do in any sane way, emigration is doing in a most natural manner. There are some phases of this transition which are quite amusing, and to which it is most difficult for those who once lorded it over these poor people to accommodate themselves.

In the little town of Pulsano on the beautiful, spacious Gulf of Taranto, I roused the genial communal secretary from his midday nap. He good-naturedly showed me the registers and spoke at length of the numbers who had emigrated and of those who had returned. "Do you observe any change in the returned emigrant?" I asked. His answer was both laughable and pathetic. He nearly wept as he told me of the utter lack of respect shown by returned emigrants towards their former superiors. Said he: "I have always been good to these people and helped them, even when they were going away. Then they were very humble and always came into my office with great fear, hat in hand, hardly daring to lift their eyes from the floor. When they return, they come in here and look on me as no better than themselves. They do not even take off their hats. I can hardly endure it. Respect is due, if not to myself, at least to my official

position. But in America they lose all respectfulness."

I sympathized heartily with him. It is a pity that life in America should cause the Italian to lose any of his charming native politeness, but the returned emigrant does not distinguish between servile, unmanly obsequiousness and common courtesy. Just because the *civile* and upper classes have always treated him with contempt, he considers it a mark of his equality to fail in respect to them when he returns. It is a characteristic of half knowledge, and of contact with a people who recognize no strict class distinctions, by whom all who work hard and earn an honest livelihood are held in high esteem, and only the indolent and dishonest are despised.

It was in the same province of Taranto that I came upon one of the most interesting returned emigrants that I met. I had ridden four hours in a jolting, rickety, old diligence, and reached this town late in the evening. One of my fellow-travelers offered to take me to the home of a man who had been in America. I was ushered into a very neatly furnished parlor which my host hospitably transformed into a temporary dining room for the American who had come to town, while he himself prepared some good macaroni and meat for me, with fruit and coffee afterwards. Then he sat down and told me about his experiences in America. He spent twenty-two months in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, with a construction gang and saved a little money. He liked America, and the opportunity to make money, but genuine homesickness for his wife and children compelled him to return. "I love my own town and family too much," said he, "and so I have returned to remain here and carry on this humble occupation." He has opened a little store where he sells simple groceries and wine. It was easy to see that he loves his family dearly, when his two little girls and his boy came into the room to bid him good-night. There was a wealth of affection in his manner and a gleam of tender pride in his face as he played

with them and caressed them. And well might he be proud, for they are well-mannered, obedient children.

During further conversation, he made this significant remark: "The Americans are good people, and any Italian can do well in America if he is faithful to his work and honest. The Americans appreciate good behavior and like the good Italians very much. But woe to the bad Italians who like to do wrong; they had better keep out of that country."

Possibly more important than any of the effects so far mentioned, is the impulse which emigration has given to popular education. Italy has many large universities. Those of Bologna and Naples have been famous seats of learning for centuries. The University of Naples has over four thousand students enrolled; Bologna and Turin number thousands more, and the various other institutions of learning are taxed to their utmost capacity. But while this is true, I visited towns where from seventy-five per cent to ninety per cent of the population can neither read nor write. Education was not furnished for all until recently; it was the privilege of the more fortunate classes who could afford to pay for it. Thirty years ago in my own native town of nearly fifteen thousand inhabitants, there were but six of us, all boys of different families, who had a private teacher, the only children in that entire town who were receiving any schooling. There is a national law which makes at least a primary education compulsory, but since educational matters are left entirely in the hands of the communes, and these being always short of funds are obliged to keep down expenses, school appropriations suffer because of a lack of appreciation of the value of education.

Here again emigration is accomplishing what laws could not. When the first emigrants came here from Italy, it was necessary to depend upon the *padrone* or some town official to read and answer the letters from America. This had a two-fold disadvantage. In the first place, such services would always have to be well paid for in fruit, eggs, cheese or

money; but, what was more difficult to endure, family secrets became common property of the town. If the head of the family sent home five hundred francs, the whole town knew of it in a few hours, and the women discussed that and the other contents of the letter as they gathered at the common *fountain* to fill their water jars or at the public *fontanile* to wash their clothes. Manifestly, the best way to avoid this was to have some one in the family learn to read and write. Thus, not because education was really desired, but because it supplied a need, thousands of children were given a primary education, but they left school as soon as they could decipher the letters from America and write a reply.

At the present time, however, the Italian in America sees the value of fuller instruction. He sees the advantage that the man who can read and write and figure has over the illiterate. One is the boss, the other digs in the ditch. The Irish overseer works apparently only with pencil and paper, while the Italian swings a pick or breaks his back toiling with a short shovel under the hot sun, or in the rain; and so, as he works, he resolves, as every good father should, that he will make it possible for his children to have an education and take a higher position in the world than he can. So, if his children are in Italy, he sends back word that they all be sent to school. Consequently the schools in the southern provinces are crowded to overflowing. I visited several of them. What a contrast with our magnificently built and equipped public schools! The wretched rooms; rough, crude old benches; no heat in cold weather; no means of ventilation; children dirty and unkempt; and odors so strong I hardly dared take a long breath until out again in the open air! And yet, as I talked with the teachers, I was impressed with the keen enthusiasm with which they do their work under such unfavorable conditions, and the heroic sacrifice many of them are making for the sake of the children entrusted to them.

One of the most important and far-reaching results of emigration is the



GROUP OF WOMEN WHOSE HUSBANDS OR BROTHERS ARE IN AMERICA.

change in ownership of landed property. Twenty years ago there were very few *contadini* who owned a foot of land. All the soil belonged to the great land barons who left the management of their estates to agents and passed their days in idleness and pleasure in the capitals of Europe. Naturally the one ideal which the landless *contadino* cherished was that some day he might become the owner of a few acres and a little *torre* or hut in which he and his family could dwell, free from harassing rents. But in those days, for a peasant to scrape enough together to purchase even an eighty dollar hut and a strip of land, was absolutely out of the question. Finally the way opened. The great America needed these sturdy sons of toil. From the Calabrian and Sicilian mountains they went by thousands. They had had good training in simple living and hard work. They could live in shanties, eat dry bread and macaroni, do satisfactory work, and at the same time put by the greater part of their earnings. They had learned long ago how to save every *centesimo*. Soon money began to pour into Italy and the post office banks were full of the emigrants' savings. Naturally the first thought was to possess the

coveted hut and piece of land, and it is noteworthy that in sections where the peasant has never been a landowner before, the greatest efforts are put forth in order to join the ranks of the property holders.

In the Abruzzi, district of Isernia, almost the entire population rented and tilled the soil of a single landlord. After a series of crop failures causing great suffering, the peasants who were without either seed or bread, emigrated in a mass. Now a goodly number have returned, brought and divided among themselves the same lands which some time ago they abandoned, paying fabulous prices for them, too.

The peasant feels so rich with a few hundred francs in his pocket, so happy at the prospect of becoming a property holder, that he is easily persuaded to part with most of his cash in return for the desired land. The scarcity of men and the advance in price of labor, have made it almost impossible for the small land owners to till their soil. But whether the land be tilled or not, government taxes must be paid on it, and they are finding it much more profitable to sell their estates, divided into small plots, to returned emigrants at exorbitant

prices. Pieces of ground which rarely yield more than enough to pay taxes are eagerly bought for three or four times their real value. The following table, taken from a special study of emigration in the Molise, made by the Agricultural Department, shows by years the relation between the number of those emigrating, the amounts of money sent back into Italy, and the number of sales of property, during the last twenty years:

Year.	Number of Emigrants.	Deposits of Money Sent to Italy.	Number of Property Sales.
		Lire	
1886....	6,677	1,339,740	5,046
1887....	9,084	1,629,650	7,418
1888....	7,843	2,144,512	7,243
1889....	5,038	2,392,690	7,206
1890....	6,716	2,675,224	7,916
1891....	7,458	3,040,815	8,352
1892....	4,664	3,288,515	8,568
1893....	6,031	3,638,975	8,596
1894....	5,716	2,891,871	8,568
1895....	10,897	2,939,831	8,326
1896....	13,224	2,878,397	8,087
1897....	6,598	3,593,099	7,493
1898....	6,776	4,419,876	8,168
1899....	6,929	5,309,128	8,316
1900....	9,614	6,871,051	8,499
1901....	12,896	5,639,272	9,113
1902....	15,381	6,313,112	8,621
1903....	14,168	8,136,733	8,734
1904....	8,075	9,493,387	9,495
1905....	16,180	9,372,927	9,729
1906....	16,160	9,312,927

And how does the peasant succeed with his bit of land? He works it to the best of his ability. He devotes all his time and strength to it, but all too often at the end of the year he finds he has not enough money to pay him for his labor, to say nothing of returns on money invested. The wily landlord has probably sold him his poorest, his most exhausted ground. The peasant has only the primitive tools, previously described, to work with, and he knows nothing about fertilizing the soil to make it more productive. Until the recent action of the Department of Agriculture, which will be spoken of later, no one took any pains to instruct him; no one cared whether he failed or succeeded. He tries it another year with no better results. He and his family are living as miserably

as when he rented the land. Finally he becomes discouraged and sells his land for half or less than half what he paid for it, probably to the same landlord from whom he bought it, and returns with his family to America, this time to settle permanently.

One of Italy's farsighted and most patriotic citizens, the well known Professor Villari of Florence, is urging the government to take prompt action to protect these peasant proprietors when they return and desire to settle down in their native land. He recommends that the policy of Sir Horace Plunkett in his dealings with the Irish peasants, which has resulted in prosperity for the peasants and for Ireland, be studied and its best points adopted in Italy. In a recent article in the *Nuova Intologia*, the leading literary magazine of Italy, this eminent professor who is also a senator, thus sums up on the benefits emigration has brought to Italy:

It is certain that emigration has its good as well as its ill effects. In the first place, it brings a great deal of money into the country. It is estimated that the Basilicata alone, one of the poorest provinces, receives annually from its emigrants 8,500,000 *lire* (\$1,700,000). Wages and the price of land have greatly increased, peasant property holders have become numerous and usury, which was a serious blight in the southern provinces, has virtually disappeared. The number of blood crimes has greatly diminished. In Calabria the decrease is forty per cent. This is due in part to the fact that the restless and troublesome emigrate, and in part to the fact that misery and want are disappearing. There is being felt a strong need for instruction in reading and writing, and this for various reasons, but especially for the possibility of corresponding with relatives in foreign lands.

Were these the only results of emigration, it is evident that Italy could well afford to help on the throng that is annually crossing the ocean. But this is only half the picture. Certain evil results are everywhere apparent, and cause grave concern to the government, to patriotic statesmen and to all who love that fair land. The southern provinces, particularly the Basilicata, Abruzzi, Calabria, Sicily, and more recently Bari, are rapidly losing their working population, that which produces food for the nation, and for export trade. And, as a consequence,

whole sections are fast becoming depopulated, towns are abandoned and landholders are everywhere saying that they cannot find anyone to cultivate the soil,—“*Ci manca la mano d'opera*,”—“We lack the working hand,”—is the universal cry. “The young men have all gone to America.” As one man put it, “We are rearing good strong men to spend their strength for America.” I passed through town after town where I scarcely saw an able-bodied man. Only the old men, women and children are left.

How serious this loss is to Italy was

The emigrants by their very departure increase the wages of the few who remain, but where these are mostly old or feeble men, women and children, or where the landlord cannot really afford to have all of his land tilled at the higher wages of necessity large tracts are left uncultivated. Barren hillsides and abandoned fields in Calabria, Campania and Sicily bear silent testimony to the loss of inhabitants. In a private report to the late Prime Minister Zanardelli, Cav. Franzoni mentions towns in the Basilicata that notwithstanding the increase



AN ABANDONED HILL TOWN.

most forcibly borne in upon me last May as I stood in the custom house at Naples beside the American consular medical official, and saw him examine seventeen hundred emigrants, nearly all young men, a few women, who were soon to sail for New York on the Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse. Our doctor was very careful in his examination and refused all who were not physically perfect. The parting words of Commissioner Watchorn, spoken as I was leaving America, came to my mind. Said he: “The country that loses its strong young men is to be pitied and the land which receives them is to be congratulated.”

by births have shrunk in the last twenty years, thirty, thirty-three, thirty-six, forty and forty-seven per cent. In Sicily many a beautiful terraced garden, once a delight to the eye, is falling into decay. The spring rains rushing down the mountainsides loosen the stones of the terrace walls. There are not enough workmen to keep them in repair, and so the wall finally crumbles and the soil it has supported is washed away, leaving a rocky, barren hillside where once orange and lemon groves flourished.

Naturally, too, the loss of peasant laborers who have been the food producers, and the abandonment of fields



ONLY THE OLD MEN AND WOMEN ARE LEFT.

result in a diminished food supply for the entire nation. The cost of living is rising all over the country, but especially in the large cities. I was amazed to note the advance in price of many commodities over their cost just eight years ago when I was there. Wine, for instance,

has advanced from three to four cents a liter; vegetables of every kind are from twenty to thirty per cent higher; and meat (beef) is dearer than in America. The burden of this falls chiefly upon those in clerical professions. There is almost no emigration of educated men



WOMEN WORKERS.

and there has been no increase in salaries to correspond with the increased cost of living.

In Lecce, province of Bari, one of the finest, most modern cities of the south, I met several of these professional men. They all told me how difficult they were finding it to make a living at the present time. The secretary of the commune, himself a man of refinement and keen intelligence, was considering moving to America, and asked my opinion as to his chances of success here. I strongly advised him to remain in Italy. Positions in our business and educational world such as these men are fitted to take, are already filled by our own American young men, and the Italian is further handicapped because he does not speak our language.

Another result of this departure of such a large proportion of the male population, and one which is destined to work harm to the nation in the near future, is that the women are taking up the hard work of the fields. I saw many a field with long rows of women toilers, the overseer the only man in sight. How often I saw these poor *contadine* starting for the distant fields before the day light, a *sappa* under one arm, probably a black bread under the other, probably a piece of goat's cheese in the pocket, and a little earthen jug of water on the head; bare-foot and bare-legged, with skirt pinned up nearly to the knee. Near Tivoli, I met a sunburned peasant woman coming down the steep, stony path, carrying on her head a basket in which slept a little child. And often the poor woman has besides the basket cradle on her head, her *sappa*, her black bread and water jug, a cord tied about her waist by which she draws an unwilling pig or sheep to pasture. Angelo Mosso tells in his valuable book, *La Vita Moderna degli Italiani*, which I have quoted before, that this is a common sight. "She runs swiftly down the spurs of the hills, sure of foot, and arrives at the plain just as the sun peers over the horizon's rim. She makes a little tripod of canes to support the baby's cradle, and commences work. Formerly the *sappa* for woman's use, was smaller than a man's.

but now that more work must be done, it is of the same size. One hour before the *Ave Maria* at sunset, she stops work and toils wearily up the hill again to spend the night far from the malaria infested plain. And for this life of hardship women receive eight or ten cents a day," for while man's wages have increased, woman's have not. Nor is her work over yet, for on her return she is greeted by her hungry children and a dark, cheerless hut where, on the broad hearth whose chimney is the open door, she prepares the *polenta* or the potatoes for the evening meal.

When mothers do such exhausting labor, there is bound to be a bad effect upon the next generation. In fact the evil result is already apparent. Government reports show that the physical standard of young men examined for military service is much lower than it was twenty years ago. The youths are weaker and undersized. Every year it is growing more difficult to obtain soldiers of the required height even from the southern provinces. Some districts cannot furnish over a third of their quota. The number in Sicily of those unfit for conscription has advanced to twenty-nine per cent; in the Basilicata it is thirty-one per cent; the average for the entire kingdom is twenty-four per cent.

But the degenerating influences are not merely physical. A tendency to moral degeneracy, inevitable consequence of the breaking up of so many thousands of families, is beginning to show also. Imagine what it must mean to community of 5,000 to lose in ten years between 600 and 1,000 of its male inhabitants, most of whom are heads of families, who are gone from home at least two or three years before the first visit home.

While it is true that there is a double moral standard in Italy, one of unwavering rectitude for a woman while a man may do as he pleases, yet the married Italian is as a rule very fond of his home and family and, in the majority of cases, faithful to them. He will make any exertion or sacrifice for the good of his children, and he toils and saves either

to bring his family to America or to return to Italy, purchase property and live there. However, there is a tendency, especially among the young men who are thrown amid all sorts of temptations in our large cities, to forget their wives on the little peninsula. I learned in some towns of women who had been abandoned. Their husbands had not been heard from in years. Other men have wives and families on both sides of the ocean. At Batlipaglia near ancient Paestum. I met such a man. He had a barber shop in Boston and apparently was very successful. He further informed me in a most off-hand manner that he had a wife in Boston as well as one in Italy. Here in Brooklyn I recently came across an Italian with a wife and three children. His wife had for some reason recently left him and he told me that he is going back to Italy to get another girl to be his wife and mother his children.

And what becomes of the women and children left in Italy without their natural protectors? Italian girls and women, even of the peasant class, have always been carefully guarded. The knife of father, brother or husband is ready to avenge any insult to their honor. But while these are far across the sea, the direst things often happen. The prefect of Cosenza, Calabria, told me that he considered this one of the most serious phases of the emigration problem in the south. Said he: "Years ago we had family order here. Children were brought up to obey their parents. To-day, we are confronted with prostitution among a class of women who formerly in spite of their poverty were respectable. Then, too, infanticide is rapidly making itself felt, an evil entirely unknown here a few years ago."

The number of illegitimate children is steadily increasing. When it is remembered that even in 1901 the percentage of families without a head, due either to death or emigration, was for the kingdom, 9.10; for the province of Basilicata, 22.7; and for Calabria, 29.1; and that it is the strongest, sturdiest men of from twenty-one to fifty years who emigrate, it is evident that there is serious

danger of race degeneration in the near future.

These conditions are bad enough in themselves, but the evil does not stop with them. Children brought into the world under such circumstances are not only deprived of the strict control and discipline of a father, but they have no proper chance for moral development, and grow up without any restraint. This will not be conducive to good manhood or good citizenship, to say the least.

Another menace is the spread of disease, especially tuberculosis, among the southern provinces. Contracted by emigrants who live in crowded, unhealthy tenement houses in America, or work in our subways or in factories, it is carried back to Italy where it was almost unknown a few years ago, but where it is now growing rapidly. The Italians have not yet learned how to cope with it successfully.

Only the indications of what Italy may expect in the future are before us. In fifteen or twenty years more, if conditions do not greatly change for the better there will be a fearful harvest. Some students of emigration in Italy profess to believe that the large sums of money annually sent back by the emigrants to their families, or deposited in the post offices¹, more than compensate for these evils. Certainly the money sent back is a real benefit to the country, as we have already noted, but would anyone be so shortsighted as to contend that any amount of money can repay a people for the breaking up of family life, lowering of moral standards and consequent physical degeneration? "Man does not live by bread alone," especially when that bread is gotten at the expense of national morals. The prophet of old is right. "Righteousness exalteth a nation but sin is a reproach to any people."

Moreover, the Italian nation has no assurance that the emigrants' money now in institutions for savings, will ultimately be put to such use that the entire country will be benefited. To be sure, a

¹ In Italy, the post offices serve as banks for the people. It is a great boon to the country people to have such safe places under government protection in which to deposit their savings. Millions of lire earned in America are now in these banks.

part of this money is used in the construction of new houses, for the purchase of little plots of land and in rendering more bearable the lives of those who remain. But by far the largest amount of these earnings is still lying idle, waiting for the toilers' return. In the past the hope of every man has been to earn enough to be able to go home to his native land, invest his money, and there with his family enjoy the fruits of his self-sacrifice and toil. And many an Italian who has accumulated a goodly sum of money has realized this ambition. With this in mind, I made it a special point to discover in each locality visited how many had returned to their native towns to settle down permanently, and I found the percentage very small. Only thirty have returned to one town from which four thousand have departed, and all of these did not intend to remain. It is no secret among the Italians of the south that once a man has tasted life in the United States, it is almost impossible for him to return and take up his former occupation and the humdrum existence of his country town. There is nothing to be done in the hill towns save agriculture with cumbersome hand tools, and a man of any stamina will not work long for a pittance when he knows by experience that in this country he can earn in half a year enough to keep him for the other half, and save something beside. The mayors of the hill towns understand the truth of this better than men who are studying the subject at a distance. Several of them stated the matter thus: "The *contadino* goes to America with the intention of returning to Italy. After he has saved a little, he does return. He may be offered work for twenty-five or thirty cents a day, fifty or sixty in the harvest season, but he has acquired a new estimate of the value of his services. He rarely takes up work, save for a short time. He has money in his pocket and as long as it lasts he enjoys himself and is an object of envy to all his neighbors. When his money is gone, he packs up and crosses the ocean again. He may even pay another visit to his own town, buy land, and try working for himself, but he ends by taking over

his family if he has one, and quits Italy forever." This is going on in hundreds of towns. It stands to reason that when towns have been steadily diminishing for twenty years, anywhere from ten to fifty per cent or even more, as Amalfi, from 10,000 to 3,000, many emigrants cannot be returning to live. When once an immigrant brings his family across the ocean, or marries here and children come to bless him, he is by that very fact anchored here, for his children's sake if for no other reason. I know a prosperous laboring man in Brooklyn with a wife and eight children. The wife said to me not long ago: "Mike¹ and I would like to return to our own town. We have there a little house of two rooms and a nice piece of ground which bears figs, olives and grapes. We two could live very comfortably and enjoy the sunshine and the open air. Here I am shut up in this house from one week's end to the other. The most I can do is to go across the street on Sunday to see my neighbors. But how can we go back to Italy with our children? We cannot support them there, and what would they do? Here they can get an education and become something. *Al paesello nostro, non c'è nulla.* In our little town there is nothing, so we must remain here for their sakes."

There might be a possibility for the single man's return, but he is usually quite young, and his free life amid the glitter and glamour of our cities unfits him for the dull, simple routine of his mountain home. Among these there is an increase of the drink habit and this with other vices learned here, is carried back when they return for a visit. Their example is demoralizing, for they scorn work while their money lasts and spend their time in the wine-shops, drinking and gambling.

The young Italian of more strength of character does not find it possible to remain in Italy either. In Rome I met a patriotic young fellow who had been in the United States and had learned to read and write English at a night school. Hundreds of bright young Italians are

¹ This man's name is Michele; Mike is an Americanization.

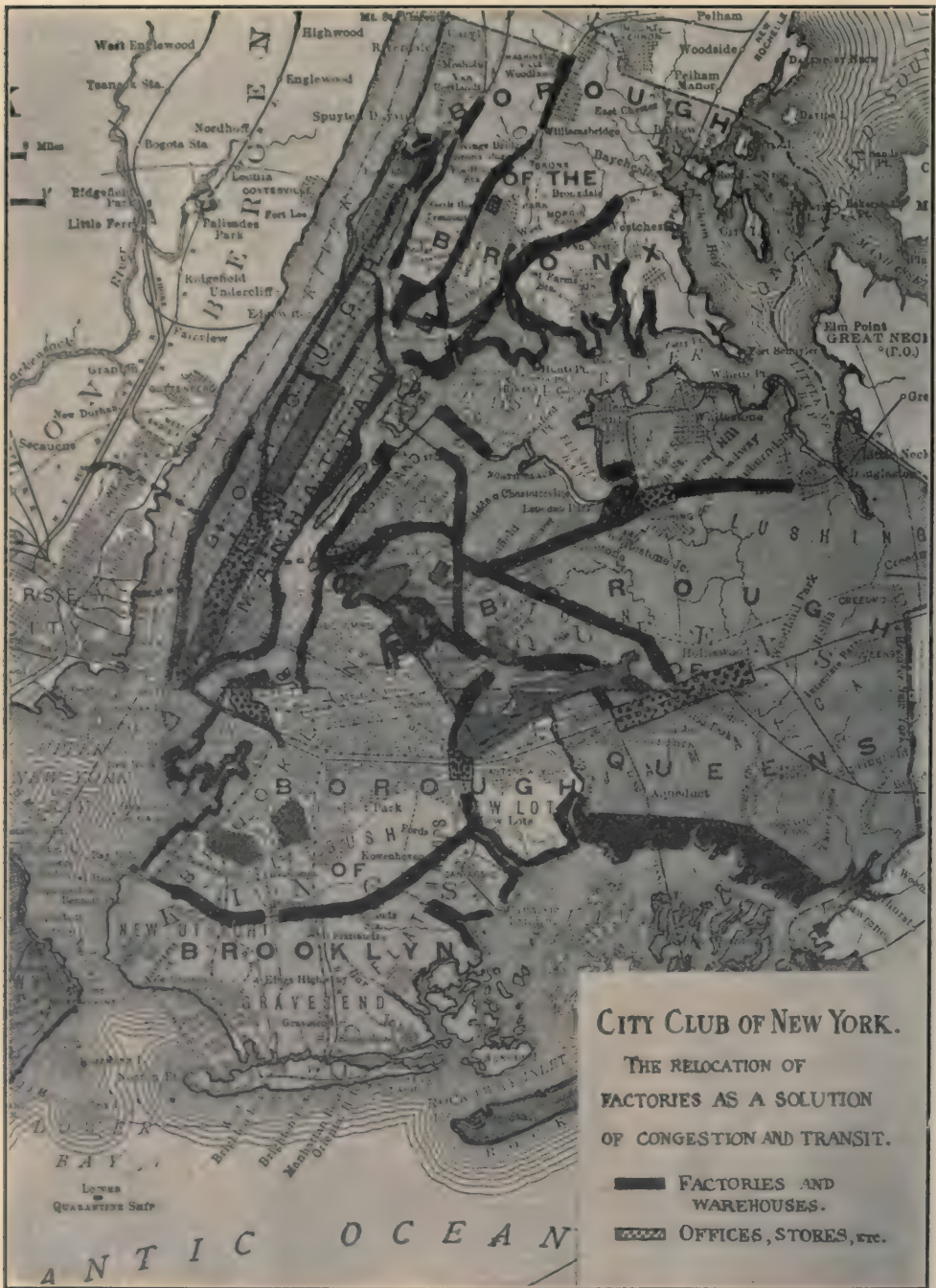
doing the same thing, and others are learning trades in our industrial night schools. He had returned to serve for three years in the Italian army. He told me that in America he was earning two dollars a day as a blacksmith. "Italy no good," said he, "I stay in America. America good country for the workman."

This is the growing conviction of most of those who come from the rural sections and, for this reason, there is no certainty that the money which has been sent back is destined to remain in Italy. In fact, there is recent evidence to the contrary. Just before I left Rome, I was talking with an official high in government circles, who is in a position to know the facts. He told me gravely that even now money is being withdrawn and returned again to America. "Only last month," said he, "I received a com-

munication from one of our consuls in the western part of the United States where the Italian population is not large either, warning me of this. He reported that in the past year he has recalled from various postal banks in the south, sums totaling 2,000,000 *lire* (\$400,000) for Italians in his district."

This, together with the fact that the number of emigrant women and children is increasing, and that Italians are acquiring property and becoming successful in business in our cities, means that the Italians are in America to stay. Italy has lost them; she is in danger also of losing the money she hoped would recompense her, and she is beginning to feel that she must do something to induce her children to return, or, at least, to retain those who remain.





RE-LOCATION OF FACTORIES.

The map above is designed to suggest a relief of congestion by the re-location of the factory district. At present about 70 per cent of the manufacturing of New York City is carried on in the lower end of Manhattan; its location at this point is largely the cause of the congestion of the East Side, and seriously complicates the transit problem. The map suggests the location of factories along water front and transportation lines with territory for the homes of the workmen immediately adjacent. Could they be so located workmen could live in single or double family houses and would require no transit to and from their work.



BROADWAY'S CHANGING SKYLINE
Twenty-fourth Street to the Battery—1842—1885—1907

The Exhibit of Congestion Interpreted

John Martin

A varied array of maps, diagrams, charts, statistics, models, photographs and pictures, assailed the visitor to the Congestion Show—as its organizers irreverently called it—which was held in the American Museum of Natural History, New York, from March 9 to 28.

The one keyword was congestion;—and that fact has much significance. It means that for the first time the little troop of humanitarians who have been fighting against bad housing, tuberculosis, insufficient schools, dearth of parks and playgrounds, ill health, accidents, and juvenile crime,—all the multifarious evils that grow with rank luxuriance in cities,—are concluding that the only cure for the evils of congestion is the abolition of congestion.

Charity workers have learned that the alms-giving which tides a family over a day and neglects the causes of destitution is unscientific and fruitless. So reformers are discovering that settlements, institutional churches, tenement reform, small parks, children's courts, and the other measures, good in themselves, which try to counteract the bad effects of crowding, are not thorough and scientific. To leave the city to grow ever bigger, to provide by higher houses for greater crowds, to pour fresh streams of humanity into tiny, stifling areas, and then to attack the resulting evils, is like putting tuberculosis patients into dark, unventilated rooms and then dosing them with "consumption cures" to arrest their disease.

So the main meaning of this exhibit was that overcrowding in apartments, in school rooms, in the criminal courts, has

a direct connection with the crowding into city blocks, into special assembly districts, into great cities; and the purpose of the exhibit was, besides picturing the manysided evils of these various types of congestion to suggest that perhaps New York is not a great glory, but, in Cobbett's phrase, "a great wen," and to start an investigation of methods for spreading the population over wider areas.

I shall group the exhibits in three classes:

I.—Those which depicted present conditions.

II.—Those which analyzed the causes of these conditions.

III.—Those which suggested cures.

THE CONDITIONS

Within nineteen miles of city hall a population numbering 5,404,638, lives and works. Fifteen years ago the number was only 3,326,998. If the increase continues at the same pace as during the last fifty years, there will reside in Greater New York alone in the year 1950, 25,000,000 souls. Such figures would be appalling enough if the population were distributed over the whole city area, but it is packed upon a small part of the area. The Metropolitan Parks Association displayed a large map upon which small shot, each representing an individual soul, was scattered and piled to show the density of population. On the lower part of Manhattan the shot was heaped up and running over the fences that were used to hold it in place, while in great areas on the outskirts it was scattered thin as flowers in meadows. In Manhattan the average density is

150.4 persons per acre, in the borough of Queens only 2.4 and in the extensive borough of Richmond only 1.9.

Still worse. Eleven New York blocks have a density of 1,200 per acre, which means that if the whole of little Delaware were similarly crowded, it could contain the entire population of the world, white, black, yellow and red.

Of course such congestion induces bestial crowding in single rooms. The results of a special investigation of the family crowding in the Italian quarters were shown by statistics, photographs and diagrams. Of the families examined, 18 per cent occupied one room, and 34.4 per cent only two rooms, showing a condition much worse than the average on the East Side, where a family consists of seven persons living in three rooms, three members being at home, two at school and two at work. Among these Italians less than three out of every hundred families had five rooms, and yet, as if one and two rooms for a family were over-abundant, about one-third of the families had one lodger, forty-one per cent two lodgers, 16.5 per cent three lodgers and 3.1 per cent four lodgers. Thus, counting two children under twelve as equivalent to one adult, one-sixth of the rooms in these Italian quarters were found to be housing as many as four adults each.

With such pestilent conditions, not mitigated, as they were in the old country, by life in the open air and the free circulation of the winds around the dwelling, no wonder that the average death rate in special blocks ran as high as 24.9 and 24.5 though the average death rate for the city is 18.33. The babies are the special victims. All the year through goes on a slaughter of the innocents. While the death rate per thousand of children under five, living at those ages, is but fifty-one for the whole city, in these Italian blocks it runs up to eighty-two, eighty-seven and ninety-two. Throughout the city one-third of all the deaths are of children under five,—a Herodian slaughter, due in great part to the stifling in city slums.

With the other evils shown by exhibits—the plague of tuberculosis, the

manufacture of boy and girl criminals, the unmerited suffering that escapes observation in the crowd, the lack of play spaces, the children deprived of half their schooling,—the readers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS are already familiar.

This cool, scientific inquiry, made for the Italian government at its expense, therefore revealed a widespread condition as bad as was concretely shown in the model of a tenement sweat-shop that the Association of Neighborhood Workers exhibited. An exact model of a room, with actual bed, table and chairs brought from the East Side, showed father, mother and five children of different ages, from the tot of two or three to the grown-up youth, all busy by day making goods, all huddled in a space twelve by twelve feet. Next door the same seven were shown sleeping in the same chamber, father, mother and baby in one bed, one child on table top, another on chairs, the rest on mattresses thrown on the floor. This life-like representation, horrifying to a person with sympathetic imagination, might have been charged with exaggeration, except that, across the hall, were the veracious figures, carefully and officially compiled, to prove that one-sixth of the typical Italian families investigated are existing in just such a de-humanizing way.

* THE CAUSES

The causes of the growth of New York city were analysed in the exhibit of the Federation of Churches as follows:

A.—The geological formation of New York state, which arranged the magnificent harbor of New York, the wide, tide-scoured channel of the Hudson and the low, fertile valley of the Mohawk, with easy grade to the west, all as if designed to make Manhattan Island the wharf for the continent.

B.—The monopoly granted to the city in 1678 in "the bolting of flour and the packing of flour and fruit for export." Before the monopoly was removed the foundations of New York's greatness were securely laid.

C.—The Louisiana purchase, which diverted the commerce of the West towards the East. Had the region west of the Mississippi remained French, its trade must have passed down that river through New Orleans.

D.—The construction of the Erie canal. For a few decades prior to the opening of the canal, the relative growth of New York city had declined. But the canal assured its hold upon the trade from the Great Lakes and its consequent growth.

E.—The establishment of ship lines by enterprising New Yorkers from early days, until to-day 225 ports throughout the world are connected by direct lines with New York. More than thirteen times as many passengers embark at New York as at all other United States ports put together; and the tonnage which enters the harbor is nearly equal to the tonnage that enters at Boston, Philadelphia, New Orleans, Baltimore, Galveston, the Puget Sound ports and San Francisco combined.

F.—The building of the railroads radiating from New York. The first steam locomotive on the continent was built in this city.¹

G.—The telegraph and the cable. One New Yorker invented the first and another New Yorker made the second a practical possibility.

H.—The industrial and the manufacturing establishments which in New York show nearly double the capitalization and number

of employes of those in Chicago, the next largest city.

These economic and geographic conditions, coupled with the unresting expansion of the areas tributary to New York's trade, make it certain that within twenty miles of the Battery fresh millions will settle in the next decades and the existing black conditions will, therefore, spread unless brains and energy are applied to determine the distribution of the population.

The geographical and economic causes do not, however, account directly for the intensified congestion in special blocks, houses and rooms, nor for the deficiency in school accommodation and the backwardness of many public services. Several exhibits showed that the concentration of ground ownership, high rents and an imperfect system of taxation, aggravate the evils which economic causes started and cripple the city in its struggle against the evils. For example, the eight largest estates own land in Manhattan assessed at \$147,778,500 and covering 264.8 acres. The land in the

¹The Reform Club's map showing the gridiron of lines impressively emphasized this point.



A SECTION OF THE EXHIBIT

In the foreground the "shot density map" by the Metropolitan Parks Association. In the center a moving picture machine showing the swarming street life at the entrance of the Williamsburg Bridge.

Astor estate alone, on Manhattan, exclusive of buildings, is assessed at \$69,528,700. On the other hand, small holdings are relatively few.

In the Bronx not one-third of the land owned by private persons or corporations is held in pieces under three acres in size, and in Queens only 44.8 per cent is held in small lots.

Rents are another expression of land values. The average rent per room in a typical block on the lower East Side is \$4.63 a month, and, on an average, the families are paying thirty per cent of their income in rent, and exceptional families a still higher proportion.

Towering rents are co-relative with towering land values. High as are New York's sky-scrapers, they are not high enough to symbolize the ever growing land values. An exhibit at the entrance, one of the most striking of all, illustrated this basic fact. A tiny cube, almost invisible, one-tenth of an inch along each edge, typified the purchase price of Manhattan Island by the Dutch—\$25; below it, a big cube, four feet and one-third inches along each edge, typified the present land value of Manhattan—\$2,712,261,571. Such vast figures, like mountain ranges, are too big to be grasped; but the cube helped.

Thus the contrast was made vivid,—oppressive rents, narrow quarters, bestial over-crowding on the one side; unimaginable land values, imperial fortunes, bountiful harvests reaped without sowing on the other side.

THE CURES

The cures must be grouped in subdivisions to save confusion of mind.

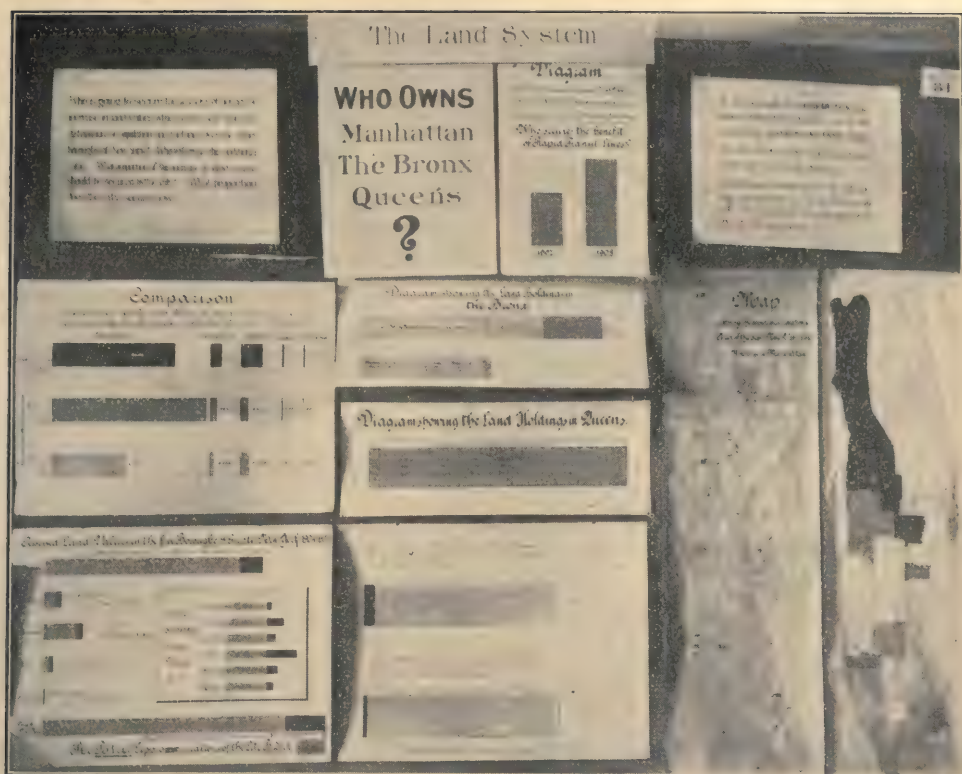
A. The means of ameliorating the conditions of tenement dwellers without attacking congestion directly. These included playgrounds, parks, additional schools, distribution of fruits and flowers to the sick, crusades against tuberculosis, stricter health laws, practical house-keeping centers. The need for additional sweatshop laws to regulate home work, so as to prevent the employment of children and to restrict the hours of women and minors, as is already done

for factory work, was vividly portrayed by the New York Consumers' League.

B. Tenement house reform. The new law for tenement building in New York cuts down the number of people in a block by over twenty per cent, and, since the establishment of the Tenement House Department, plans have been filed under the new law for houses to accommodate over a million people. But the progress in making the old tenements decent for human habitation is painfully slow, nearly three hundred thousand dark, interior bedrooms, hot-houses of disease, still persisting.

Germany, as was shown by an exhibit compiled by John P. Fox, has more stringent and humane tenement house laws than any American city. Around Berlin the best blocks of buildings are only two rooms in thickness, have abundant court space, supply enclosed playgrounds for the tenants' children, give each family a balcony for flowers and contain a hall for social intercourse. The outer air can be passed freely through the apartments, the floors are made sound proof, double windows exclude the noises of the street, while construction really fireproof robs the tenement of one of its terrors. Many of these blocks are owned by co-operative associations of workmen, mostly themselves occupants, to which the government loans money at a low rate from the surplus of the state old age pension fund. There are in Germany 715 of these co-partnership societies, the largest of which owns 1,800 tenement houses and has a capitalization of six and a quarter million dollars. This stock company form of house-owning has the great advantage that a stockholder, while he practically owns his own apartment, is able to transfer his shares when his work calls him elsewhere much more easily than he could sell a separate small house.

C. In the unsettled parts of the city where land is still relatively cheap, model villages might be erected, especially around the transplanted factories. A plan for such a settlement was shown which would house 900 people very comfortably in low houses with generous



A SIDE WALL.

open spaces between, on ten acres and at the cost of \$2.00 to \$2.25 a room per month of rent. It was estimated that such a scheme could pay four per cent to the investor if no allowance were made for depreciation of buildings on the expectation that the increased value of the land would offset that loss. On such a basis Queens county alone would accommodate in model style seven million people. Such a development would surely be preferable to the erection of five-story tenements such as another exhibit showed are now being erected in the Bronx, irregularly, avariciously, planlessly, along the lines of transit.

D. Germany's system of town planning is an urgent necessity for American cities. Cologne, for example, which has mapped out the city in zones, restricts the building within those zones with the authority which America permits to be exercised only by the private speculator who is opening up building

areas. In the first class zone of that city buildings may be four stories or sixty-six and one-half feet high; and they may occupy seventy-five per cent of each lot or eighty per cent of a corner lot. In the second class zone, buildings may be only three stories high and occupy not more than sixty-five per cent of the lot if they attain more than twenty-six feet. In the third class zone, buildings of two stories, or thirty-eight feet in height are encouraged to keep down their stature because if more than twenty feet high they may cover not more than half the lot, while if they do not exceed that height they may run over sixty-five per cent of the ground. In the fourth class zone, the residences must not be more than two stories in height, and each house must be at least thirty-five feet from the next house.

While some such regulations should control future building upon lands now undeveloped, they would not affect the

occupied areas. For the gradual rearrangement of these areas the City Club showed a suggestion radical and sensible. It must be considered along with their other proposals concerning transit facilities.

TRANSIT FACILITIES

New York anticipates that the building of more subways will relieve congestion of population. This expectation is vain, argue the transportation experts. If a subway has to carry the people from one block of five-story tenements on each side of it, it can serve properly only a territory forty-two blocks or two miles long. People living farther south will find the cars all crowded in the rush hours before they have a chance to get aboard. Thus ten north and south subways can serve only the Bronx, when it is developed. If, then, the population of New York grows, as other exhibitors predict, it will be impossible to carry people on cars between work-shop and home, morning and evening, unless every avenue is occupied with double-deck subways and the dwellings are spread out to the east and west.

Can the citizens not live nearer their work? Yes, if the factories also are better distributed. At present factories are condensed most thickly in the third and sixth assembly districts, where land values average \$660,850 an acre. One block, with the greatest density of factories and workers, between Crosby street, Prince street, Broadway and East Houston streets, has an assessed land valuation of \$1,123,848 per acre. The use of such valuable land for factory purposes is plainly uneconomic. Probably factory owners crowd together partly from inertia and force of habit. Abundant other sites with equally good facilities for transportation of freight could be found, and in the interest of the community their use should be encouraged. The City Club, therefore, proposes that the city areas shall be mapped out and devoted to different uses. Factories shall be placed along the waterfront with park spaces intervening here and there, and along selected transporta-

tion routes on Long Island. Behind the factories shall be placed the tenement districts, so that a worker can walk to and from home. Down the center of Manhattan may come office buildings, theaters, etc., along the subway routes, which will easily be available to the commercial people who work fewer hours and who can better afford to pay for transportation.

Whether this particular scheme be feasible or not, it is clearly time that the haphazard upbuilding of the city, the chaotic location of factories, the individualistic determination of office sites, the whole brainless jumble in placing structures should be immediately abandoned. Brains, organization, and yet again brains and organization must be applied to city planning.

Maps prepared by the City Club depicted convincingly that the distribution of population within the city limits is governed largely by the extension of the five-cent trolley fare. Population is beaten back by a higher transportation rate as the tide is beaten back by the sea-wall. Only a universal five-cent fare with free transfers in every direction can overcome this barrier to the spreading of the population.

If the centralization of work-shops be fixed, then the hours of labor determine to some extent the scattering of the workmen. As Professor Seager's paper (which is published on another page) demonstrates in detail, the working people with longest hours and lowest wages crowd of necessity closest to their work. Shorter hours are one of the reliefs of congestion.

F. Doubtless the bodily removal of individuals and families to the country, where land is crying for men, is the most drastic and effective cure for congestion. This work has been undertaken by the Industrial Removal Office. In seven years 37,000 individuals have been transplanted, many of them in families. Of the clients of the office only a tiny proportion were farmers, but the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society has also rooted persons to the land by aiding 764 farmers with money loaned on mortgage and in other ways.

The Children's Aid Society, in its long career, has distributed orphans, deserted children, and poor families over the breadth of the continent to the number of 102,868 persons, of whom, be it related with gratitude, only eight per cent have returned to New York. Pictures of these children tossing hay, tending cattle, ruddy and fat, were sharp contrasts to the other pictures of anaemic, withered gutter-snipes in the slums.

Similar good work directly reducing congestion was illustrated by the exhibit of the New York State Department of Agriculture, which brings to the notice of immigrants the seductive openings for healthy, happy, prosperous life on the deserted farms in all parts of New York state. It showed that the state can easily support a rural population of four millions, more than double the number now engaged in agricultural pursuits.

G. Finally, the exhibit was noteworthy for the emphasis with which it called attention to the necessity for a readjustment of the taxation system. One placard asked:

Who is going to secure the millions of dollars of increase in land values which will result from the distribution of population and factories over the other boroughs of New York? Who will create this additional value? What proportion of this increase in land value should be secured by the city? What proportion does the city secure now?

From 1904 to 1907 the assessed land valuations, exclusive of improvements, increased by \$506,000,000, and the total appropriations of the city budget during the same period was only \$357,000,000. Therefore the owners of New York's sites received an added fortune far exceeding all the money raised by city taxes. What wonder another placard asked in strident letters:

Who creates this increase?

Who owns this increase?

Who pays taxes on this increase?

Who pays rent on this increase?

Could Manhattan afford its needed public improvements if it had secured some of this increase?

The fact that German cities do secure some of such increase both by condemning land while it is cheap and developing it communally and by taxing increments of value when property is

transferred, gives a sharper point to this piercing query, which was clearly heard above the many-toned appeals from the different exhibits.

Mrs. Vladimir G. Simkhovitch, chairman of the committee, in opening the first meeting, said: "Sixteen months ago a small group of persons connected with the Consumers' League expressed their conviction that back of all the evils of city life lay the dominant evil of congestion of population. It seemed to that group that if this central fact were grasped by the public at large a more united front might be presented by all the forces working for the improvement of our city. In this hope a committee was formed representing thirty-seven important organizations whose interests and work had led them to this common conviction. The committee began its active work in April, 1907, with a threefold object in mind:

"(1) To express in a graphic way by means of an exhibition the causes, conditions and evils of the massing of people in New York City;

"(2) To indicate the present methods of dealing with the problems involved;

"(3) To point out, in so far as our present information allows us to draw conclusions, by what methods congestion may be remedied."

"Difficulties of congestion are unfortunately not those of this city alone. Already in other cities of our state a similar situation has arisen which, though less appalling in magnitude, is nevertheless threatening. That which has happened in New York ought not to happen elsewhere; but that New York city is unequal to the task of coping with the difficulties, we who believe in democratic government cannot believe.

"In the need of general effort that will be necessary before this complex problem or series of problems will be solved, our exhibition makes this claim alone: that of being the first public effort on the part of a group of united associations to present the problem and to suggest the next steps necessary in the prevention of congestion."

THE SPEAKERS

As the presiding officer Dr. John H. Finley enabled the audience to realize the

contracts of nationality, of industry and of population-density in Manhattan, by describing a day's walk around the island, "beating the bounds." In the course of the day he passed through Bohemia, skirted Africa, touched the toe of Little Italy, traversed Russian Poland, glanced over the greatest ships in the world, elbowed his way through streets packed with people from stoop to stoop, and also, at the northern end of the island, pushed through a dense wilderness, traversed lonely shores and passed solitary cottages.

Governor Hughes asked what is the use of putting people in hospitals and feeding them, imprisoning them for crime, and carrying the large loads of prison and hospital bills, if we can save human beings from disease and crime and at the same time increase the efficiency of our people by checking congestion? The problem of distribution is a problem of distributing work, of preventing the undue congregation of factories. We can learn and do the next thing. We are going to have the facts, and little by little we will get better transit, more playgrounds, and enforce the tenement house law. There were conditions portrayed in the exhibit which should be impossible in any civilized community, and if the law does not stop it now, it ought to be amended so that it will stop it.

Speaking on Density and Distribution of Nationalities, Dr. Walter Laidlaw, of the Federation of Churches and Christian Organizations presented, in rapid review, stereopticon slides showing proportionately the ethical factors in the make-up of New York in 1900 and the distribution of the nationalities in the boroughs. The district of the city tenanted by the nationality whose recent immigration is the heaviest—Austro-Hungarian—is the district whose density has had the greatest increase. With few exceptions, the Manhattan districts which have had an increase of over 40 people to the acre in the last five years are districts inhabited in the main by Russians, Italians and other peoples whose incoming immigration is high. Thus, on the West Side of the city, the

old Third Assembly District, inhabited by Italians, is the only one which has grown over 40 people to the acre; and the old Sixth Assembly District has increased 52 to the acre; while the old fourth has grown 84 to the acre. The Austro-Hungarians were in the lead in 1900 in the old Sixteenth Assembly District, and now in all likelihood are well to the fore in the old Tenth and Fourteenth Assembly Districts. The dispersement of the Germans to the upper East Side from the lower East Side accounts for the high increase in the density of the old Twenty-eighth Assembly District. And, the densest ward of Brooklyn—the ward which, with one exception, has had the largest increase of density—is tenanted by Germans displaced by the Williamsburg Bridge from the lower East Side; the intervening ward has lost population. Referring to the densest blocks in the congested East Side, a slide was presented showing that the blocks from 750 to 1,000 population are about 52 per cent alien, while those having a density of 1,000 to 1,200 are 58 per cent alien, and those over 1,200 to the acre are considerably over 60 per cent alien.

So long as incoming immigration lands at the Battery, lower Manhattan, in Mr. Laidlaw's view, is bound to have districts of high congestion; and the deliberate policy of building up segregated settlements in the other boroughs of Italians, Russians and other nationalities whose immigration is high, he believed to be likely to relieve the congestion of the lower East Side.

Robert W. Heberd, the commissioner of public charities, declared that one bridge across the East or North river, would do more for the relief of congestion than all the efforts of all the philanthropic organizations.

In discussing the opportunities of a health official, Dr. G. W. Goler, health officer of Rochester, said that a medical man should teach sanitation and hygiene to the people. He must seek, through illustrated lectures, social centers, the intimate study of blocks, squares and wards, to inform public opinion of the

conditions as to smoke and dust, infantile mortality, bad milk and other evils under which the masses of people are forced to live. Why should not the city certify all of the air to its citizens by the rigid enforcement of a smoke ordinance? Sufficient light and heat, air free from dust and smoke, pure water, freedom from noise, clean milk, food products free from contamination, are the right of all the citizens. "It is the duty of the state to teach the child how best to maintain its health by the practice of personal hygiene."

Howard Bradstreet contrasted our knowledge of land values and eager defense of them with our ignorance and carelessness as to the value of a child. He pointed out that playgrounds which would save children, are cheap, whatever might be their money cost.

In discussing what private charity can do to disperse population, Dr. Lee K. Frankel said that for the poor man who is independent, but just above the boundary of dependency, the city spells nothing but a life of hardship and discomfort. In New York a man earning between six and seven hundred dollars a year practically cannot live without charitable intervention. For this element we shall probably have to use artificial means of removal from the congested centers. For the dependent class no better method can be used than relief in the shape of removal. If we cannot move the factory to-day, we can move the laborer to other cities to engage in smaller industries.

Leonard G. Robinson, describing the work of the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, showed that Jewish colonies now contain over two hundred Jewish farmers, cultivating some 8,000 acres. The society has never found it necessary to employ propaganda. During 1907 it had 1,345 applicants from New York alone, who wanted to become farmers, 829 of whom had over \$500 with which they were ready to demonstrate their earnestness to get away from the crowded city and to back their faith in their success as farmers. Probably the number of Jewish farmers in this country is at least 5,000.

Dr. Antonio Stella presented in con-

vincing detail the results of the investigation for the Italian government, into the living conditions of the Italian families in New York. He showed with scientific cogency that in one block the great majority of the families are paying over twenty-five per cent of their income in rent, and some families over fifty per cent; that in most cases the number of cubic feet of air for the occupants of sleeping rooms was less than is provided in prisons, and that the mixing of sexes in sleeping rooms, though not common, was in a number of cases discovered—in one case five men and seven women sleeping in three rooms, "though it was impossible to judge how they slept." There is an enormous difference between Italians from North Italy and from the larger Italian cities, who show a sense of personal dignity in their housing conditions, and the emigrants from South Italy—rag-pickers, boot-blacks, street sweepers, retailers of ice and coal and laborers,—who "without exception live in the most dirty and abominable manner one can imagine." He gave details of houses he had inspected which called for the immediate attention of the Tenement House Department.

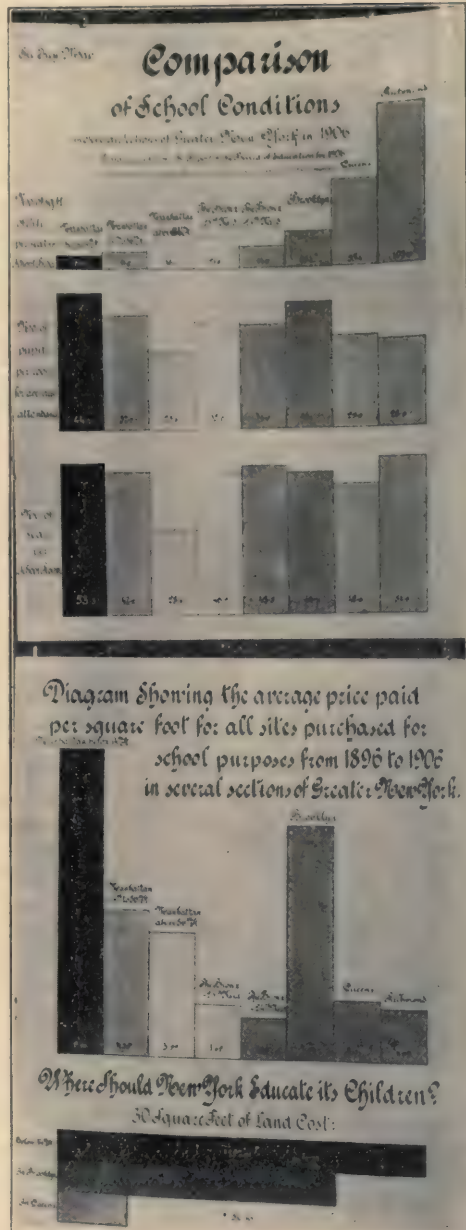
Excessive death rates from respiratory diseases, from diphtheria and from diarrheal diseases, naturally accompany these conditions. "In the case of Italian children and women, we are as nearly correct as we can be when we assume that the lack of fresh air and the congestion of bedrooms are at the base of all their ills." All other factors are of minor significance compared with the want of the oxygenation of the tissues. Although the Italian people brought up in rural districts are as badly fed as the children of the city, yet there is an immense difference in their physique. Every year young men are examined in New York and in various consular agencies for military service. The number of rejections is double and treble the number in Italy. The official statistics of the death rate from pulmonary tuberculosis are misleading because adult Italians, once affected by a serious disease, board the first steamer and go back to Italy to die among the vines and orange groves.

Italian women have a higher mortality from tuberculosis than Italian men on account of the sudden change from the open air and free life of the fields to the seclusion and semi-asphyxiation of the tenement houses, where even those of the better class remain shut up for weeks and months.

Miss Amy A. Barnady said that the incoming Italian does not stop in a downtown district because it is dirty, cheap and unhealthful, but because he finds work there, the kind of work he wants, and he can live among his own people. The distribution must be done by the conscious members of the community. He is unconscious of the congestion. From Ann Arbor to the cities of Alabama and in the districts from Missouri to Arkansas, there are plenty of good Italian colonies, remarkable for their excellent work. Often the Italian is shamefully mistreated by industrial concerns. "I counted among the victims of labor accidents embarking on a ship lately for Italy twelve men crippled for life, who were returning from Pennsylvania, from Buffalo, from the South, from New Hampshire."

Dr. Henry M. Leipziger gave a stirring address on the school as a social center, in which he described the system of lectures for adults which he directs in New York, a kind of work in which that city leads the world. For immigrants lectures are given in their own languages to assist their Americanization.

Mornay Williams energetically contended that there is a close connection between congestion of population and the law-breaking child. A child who commits a misdemeanor or violates a city ordinance generally does so because he has not had proper home care. He is the product of three distinct influences—overcrowding, motherlessness and the street. As you go down the social scale into more and more congested neighborhoods, you find home life less powerful, street life more common. The child, not yet adolescent, is not responsible for his own violation of law. He has been educated to become a law-breaker. He has been faithful to the law of the street



if not to the law of the land. He has obeyed the traditions of his set; he has been loyal to his chums.

Miss Mary Van Kleeck pictured child labor in New York city tenements. The laws prohibiting the employment of children under fourteen in factories, stores or other specified work-places should be

extended to home work-rooms. The child labor problem not yet solved lies there. What figures are obtainable show that there is an alarmingly extensive employment of little children in home-work. The compulsory education law does not prevent the employment of children under eight, or of older children before or after school hours. To abolish the evils of this system it is necessary to place responsibility where all effective factory legislation has placed it—squarely upon the manufacturer. Prohibition, direct or indirect, of all manufacture carried on in living rooms, is the ultimate solution.

The question of school problems in congested districts was discussed by Miss Julia Richman. Overcrowding of classes, there being thousands of cases where forty-five to sixty children occupy one room, and half-time classes, she put as the worst evils arising from congestion of population. Even to-day about 70,000 children in New York city are robbed of half their schooling by lack of accommodations. Especially the children who attend only the afternoon session are victimized. It is impossible to freshen the air of the rooms for the afternoon and the children themselves are tired with romping in the streets. In the crowded districts, particularly, the violation of city ordinances right before the eyes of the children, tends to destroy that respect for law which the schools endeavor to instill.

Edward T. Devine pointed out that congestion in New York city had been intensified by the fundamental mistake in city planning, which had provided more streets running east and west than avenues running north and south. The boy who leaves the farm to get an income twice as large in the city, is probably doing the wise thing individually; the remedy for congestion is to make greater prosperity in the rural districts. Though the theater, the gaiety and the brilliant lighting of cities, are attractions, they are recent acquisitions. Perhaps similar attractions, therefore, may be developed in smaller cities. The telephone, rural delivery, better schools and more easy accommodation in the country districts

tend to the solution of the problem of the distribution of population. The past century was the century of steam; and steam is essentially a concentrating force. The coming century will be the century of electricity, and electricity is more easily a centrifugal force. The growth of cities on the whole has been beneficial rather than injurious. It has produced more wealth, and wealth is the basis of our real welfare. But we have reached the point where congestion is beginning to affect unfavorably health, morals, wages and the distribution of wealth; where it no longer leads to an improvement of schools; where it makes the acquisition of parks and playgrounds harder and the supply of civilizing agencies more difficult to obtain.

George M. Neubert argued that trade unionism, and especially the union label, worked against congestion, because they insisted on healthy conditions for the workmen, fair wages and short hours. No union shop can be a sweatshop.

In discussing the agricultural possibilities of New York state, Prof. L. H. Bailey urged that better farming would increase productivity, better living would follow, and therefore the attractions of the country would increase. To increase production every farm must be separately surveyed and understood. Agricultural education must be extended. In the country the future lies open to resourceful young men.

In the discussion Mr. Powell said that lack of labor is paralyzing rural interests, but he had found laborers fresh from the city pick fruit well after one hour's instruction. A ten-hour day on the farm with steady effort during working hours is better for the farmer as well as for the laborer than a longer day. If suitable provision were made for housing in the country, we could get a better type of laborer. It is a sin to herd laborers in a shanty and then expect them to lead civilized lives.

Dr. Abraham Jacobi showed that congestion is not merely a question of the number of cubic feet of air. A single house with few inmates may have all the bad features of bad population, and a densely populated area may be made

comfortable and healthy when fully aired and lighted. A room of 3,000 cubic feet air space, occupied by one adult, should have an hourly supply of fresh air. If a gas flame or an oil lamp or candle is burning in the room, much more fresh air is required. Thorough ventilation of living and working rooms is a prime condition for health. The death rate in Greater New York is 19.3 while the average city mortality is 16.7, all the other towns having a lower mortality than New York, down to Jamestown, which has a death rate of only 11.6. A nation which permits illness and death from a cause that could have been avoided, proves its lack of culture. Public sickness is a public scandal and a sin. For every case of death from small-pox, somebody should be held responsible.

We have to deal less with the medical question than with the social problem. The poor know that very well. The rich learn it often by sad experience. Servants, coachmen, mechanics, teachers, tailors, milliners, chauffeurs, railroad employes, agents and scrub-women—they all control your fate and that of your children. Whatever you do for the health and homes of the lowliest of them, you do for yourselves. Human society is not a collection of isolated members, but an organism of inter-dependent and mutually responsible factors.

Among the physio-graphic and economic causes for the growth of cities, Professor Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell University enumerated the money profit to be made in cities, the charm of surrounding scenery as in the cases of the health resorts, and the advantage of geographical location for manufacture or commerce. The worst congested districts are often where houses are only three or four stories high because more people to each room are living there and sanitary conditions are worse. Most people merely drift through life. Therefore much of the congestion in our great cities is due to the fact that people find themselves there and remain from force of inertia.

Charles Mulford Robinson pointed out that city planning had more to do with city utility than with city beauty. A

planner is not a beauty doctor, but an osteopathist for cities. Deliberate planning secures an enlargement of the habitable area available for the least paid workers by improving the means of circulation and the removal of factories to the suburbs. The latter has been taken up more in England and in Germany, but it is beginning to receive attention in America.

That taxation has a marked effect upon the distribution of population was shown by Lawson Purdy, who declared that New York city has one of the best systems of taxation in the world, a system very much better than prevails in England. He quoted an English report to the effect that "to nearly every proposal for improving the dwellings of the working classes, the present incidence of local taxation stand seriously in the way of all progress and reform." Where owners of land are taxed, not in proportion to the real value, but only upon the income they receive from the land, they can afford to keep their land out of the market and so create an artificial monopoly price. In New York more than one-half of the tax revenue is assessed on the value of land. This acts as a strong inducement to the owners of unoccupied land to put it to use. So far as a tax falls on the value of land, therefore, it tends to distribute population.

In an address on the duty of the church in congested districts, Dr. Stephen S. Wise pleaded that the church ought to stay in the congested districts and that something is fundamentally wrong if the church cannot get support when it is situated among vast multitudes of people, however small their means. The attitude of the church to the masses ought to be not one of patronage but of fraternalism. It should not be the subsidized emissary of the rich to the poor, but the ambassador, frank and fearless, between man and man, whether rich or poor. Institutional churches in particular are the best kind of social insurance. It is not so important that a church prate about the strains of the choirs in heaven, as that it co-operate in getting decent music in the parks on earth; instead of

talking about the golden streets of Jerusalem, I would have it get clean streets in the biggest Jerusalem in the world—our own downtown district. Instead of talking about the great recompense hereafter, let the church demand a living wage to-day.

Henry C. Wright, discussing the problem of transportation, said that we should decide whether we want in the newer districts single or double-family houses or five-story tenements; whether we are going to move people in and out daily, or whether we are going to move the factories out and the people with them. It is utterly impossible to serve thickly-populated out-lying districts by extensive subways, such as we build to-day. There is in Germany a splendid monorail which can be built for one-fifth of the cost of the subway. A permanent solution demands the wider distribution of factories with a plan for housing people within walking distance of their work.

Count Massiglia, the Italian consul general, thought that while any local endeavor will alleviate the evil of congestion, it cannot eradicate it unless the problem is studied in its broadest lines in reference not only to New York, but to all American cities.

The agglomeration in cities has been brought about by the same causes from which sprang the past financial convulsion.

In the last ten years every human device fostered industrial development. Capital, looking only for quick returns, was expended, out of proportion to the credit which it could command, in attracting people from all the corners of the earth. Not many gave a serious thought to other needs of the country, as, for instance, the colonization of the immense tracts of territory still undeveloped. True, there was daily talk in the south as well as in the west about land, but always in an industrial way; that is to say, with capital on one side, and labor subordinated to it on the other. But that is not colonization; it is swallowing down instead of digesting. Real colonization is to till the soil which will some day be owned; it is, therefore, to become attached to the land as independent freemen. Many of the wage earners, instead, live only for the amount given in return for their toil. They shift from one place to another, totally indifferent to the surroundings and so become a burden to themselves as well as to others when work, for any cause, is stopped.

Where People Live that Work in Congested Districts.¹

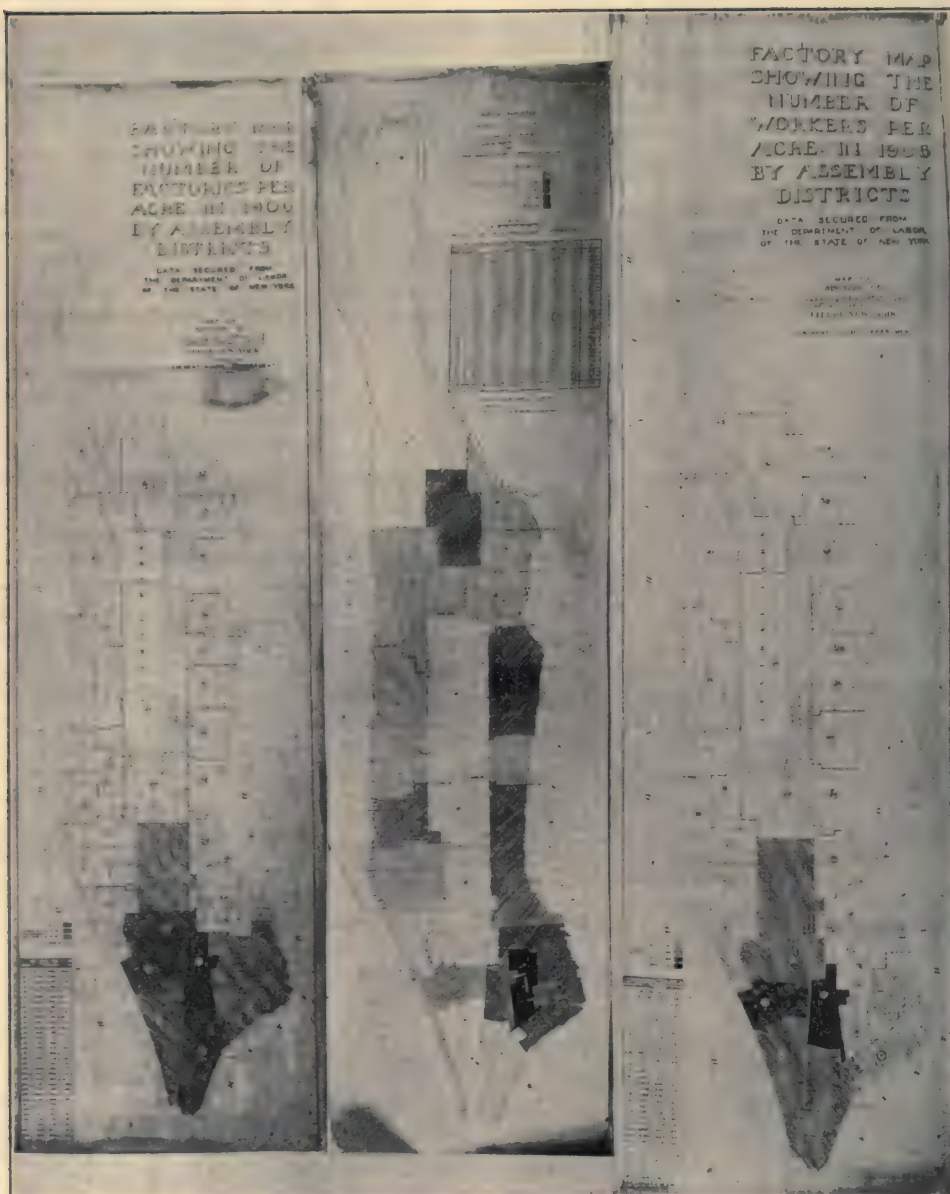
Henry R. Seager

Columbia University

The workers of the city are largely concentrated below Thirty-fourth street in the assembly districts extending east and west from Broadway. The greatest concentration is found in the Sixth assembly district, in which, according to the report of the Department of Labor, nearly twelve per cent of the factory workers of the city are employed, although the area of that district is only a little over one per cent of the area of Manhattan Island. In this most highly

congested industrial district the point of greatest concentration is found in the block bounded by East Houston, Crosby and Prince streets and Broadway. Here on an area of three and one-third acres as many as 4,000 workers, distributed among seventy-seven different factories, are regularly employed. The section in which the population of the city is most largely concentrated is directly to the east of the Sixth assembly district. The Eighth and Tenth assembly districts immediately adjacent to the sixth had densities in 1905 of more than 649 persons to the

¹ This article contains the substance of Professor Seager's address. The information he presented was collected by Benjamin C. Marsh, Miss Woerrischoffer and Benjamin C. Pratt.



THE FACTORY AND THE WORKMAN.

Maps showing, by shading, the number of factories and the residence of the workers in them. Both shops and homes are squeezed tightly into Manhattan below Fourteenth street as shown by the dark sections.

acre, while the Fourth and Eleventh districts still farther to the east showed densities of more than 500 persons to the acre.

The interesting conclusion to be drawn from the maps disclosing these facts is that after the concentration of industries in a given area passes a certain point, the land becomes so valuable for business purposes that the tenement house population is forced into adjacent districts. Consequently, where areas of industrial and resident population-congestion are not co-terminous, they are immediately adjacent.

The investigations of Miss Woerischoffer and Mr. Pratt make possible a more detailed study of the distribution of the homes of the workers employed in particular industries. With the aid of carefully prepared schedules they secured information from some 200 different employers in half a dozen of the leading manufacturing industries of the city.

Among the questions asked of employers several referred to their reasons for locating in New York city. Six large manufacturers of food products interviewed on this subject gave as their principal reason for locating in New York the accessibility of the New York market, and as subordinate reasons the large and varied supply of labor available here and the superiority of the transportation facilities which radiate from the city. These reasons recur over and over again in the answers given by manufacturers in other lines.

Even more suggestive were the answers given by the sixteen leading printing firms that were interviewed. Eleven out of the sixteen gave as their principal reason for locating in New York city the fact that the city is the recognized center of the trade. According to the last manufacturing census New York city turns out nearly one-fourth of the printed products (judged by value) that are manufactured in the whole United States. In consequence it affords a constant and abundant supply of that combination of men and materials which is the most necessary condition to the success of the printing industry. All the special by-industries are here

most highly developed; skilled workers of all grades from artisans to artists are always to be found here; New York jobbers are ready to fill rush orders for materials in greatest variety; finally, since it is the recognized center of the industry, it is here that the demand of the country converges, especially in connection with the book, periodical and newspaper branches of the business. It is these considerations that have caused New York to draw to itself and to retain, notwithstanding high rents, high wages and other drawbacks, such a large proportion of the printing and publishing industry.

There can be little doubt that the situation of the printing trade is typical of that of many of the important industries that are concentrated in New York city. Industrial concentration, once started, becomes a cumulative process. The farther it is carried the greater are the advantages in the form of abundant and varied supplies of materials and of labor-force which the industrial center offers. The enhanced value of building sites and the higher wages that result from higher rents and other expenses of living, check the movement towards concentration, but every improvement in transportation facilities gives it fresh impetus. Thus instead of finding relief through the development of new and better means of access to the city, city dwellers discover over and over again that such improvements further complicate their problem. It has been said that the destruction of the poor is their poverty. In the same sense it may be said that the cause of the evils of congestion is the advantages of concentration.

The dispersion of the homes of employees from the place where they are employed is in inverse proportion to the length of their work-day. This is shown by a study of the printing industry, representing an eight-hour trade, the leather industry representing a nine-hour trade, and the food industries representing a ten-hour trade. A study of the employees in a number of establishments in these trades, all below forty-second street on Manhattan Island, indicates that the proportion of

employees living in Manhattan in the short-houred printing trade is only thirty-one per cent, in the longer-houred leather trade forty-two per cent, and in the still longer-houred food industries seventy-four per cent. The favorite residence for those who live out of Manhattan borough in all the trades is of course Brooklyn. Here are found forty-six per cent of the printers—or more than live in Manhattan itself—forty per cent of the leather workers and eleven per cent of the food makers.

These figures confirm the opinion that a long work day is one of the contributing causes of congestion. Underlying economic influences bring about the concentration of industries in cities. If in those industries long hours are required, workers must perforce find homes within easy distance of their work-places. As hours are shortened, however, their range of choice among possible home locations is widened and a larger proportion of them prefer to live out of the most congested districts. In a well-paid eight-hour trade like printing we see the happy results of this in the fact that more than two-thirds of those who work on Manhattan Island live elsewhere. In a low paid ten-hour trade like food manufacturing we see the reverse situation, three-fourths of those who work in this industry on Manhattan Island finding it necessary to live on Manhattan Island and adding thereby so much more to the congestion of which they are themselves the victims.

Quite as significant as the information in regard to establishments in New York city collected by the investigators was that in regard to establishments which have removed from New York city. In most cases the principal reason given for removal from New York was the need of space for an expanding business and the prohibitive cost of such space on Manhattan Island.

It is rather a shock to the reformer of the back-to-the-soil type, who believes that it is only stern economic necessity which induces workmen and their families to live in unhealthful and overcrowded city tenement houses, to learn what a struggle manufacturers who remove from the city have to induce even

a portion of their employees to remove with them.

The case of six establishments investigated in Mount Vernon is fairly typical. Of the employees they had had in New York city less than forty per cent had been willing to retain their positions, and of these only a little more than one-half had moved out to Mount Vernon. The total number employed in these establishments had increased to double what it had been in New York city and of this larger number fully forty per cent were reported as still living in New York,—many in the Bronx, but many also on the East Side of Manhattan. For this continued preference of workmen employed in the country for life in the crowded city different explanations were given. A real estate dealer said that one reason was the high cost of land in Mount Vernon, and the lack of any adequate accommodations for persons of moderate means. A manufacturer said that in his judgment the chief reason was that the wives of his employees preferred the social advantages of tenement-house life to the isolation of the country. They want to be able to run across the hall for a talk with the neighbors, he said, and find the country dull and stupid. On the other hand, a workman declared that since he had moved to the country the family standards had quite changed. In the city they had been satisfied if they could manage to pay their bills every month, but now he declared the "old woman" is saving every cent she can scrape together to buy a new piece of furniture or something else for the home.

Other evidence indicating the great attractiveness of New York tenement-houses to the workers who are employed outside of the city was collected on all sides. Thus it was found that of the 3,000 employees of the establishments studied in Long Island City only twenty-seven per cent lived in Long Island City, while twenty-nine per cent lived in Manhattan and the Bronx. A similar inquiry in regard to the homes of a smaller number of employees in certain establishments in Brooklyn showed that nearly the same proportion, or twenty-four per cent, lived in Manhattan and the

Bronx, in preference to Long Island. New Jersey establishments as a rule draw their working force more largely from that side of the Hudson; but four Hoboken firms investigated showed from ten to twenty-eight per cent, and six Jersey City firms some eighteen per cent of their employes living in Manhattan and the Bronx.

The most striking case of all was that of a cloth-hat manufacturer of Jersey City, who had removed his plant from West Fourth street in 1903. Of his 300 employes four-fifths still lived in New York crossing the Hudson every day to their work, and of these quite three-fourths clung to the congested tenement house districts of the East

Side. This particular manufacturer said that some people thought that the opening of the tunnels under the Hudson would cause an exodus of families from Manhattan Island, but, so far as he could see, it would be quite as likely to cause a larger proportion of the people who work in Jersey City and Hoboken to move back into New York, which would then be so much more accessible. He regarded the superior conveniences that could be secured for the same expenditure on the East Side—in comparison with his part of Jersey City—as the chief cause of congestion and the social attractions of crowded city streets as another important factor.

Play and Congestion

Joseph E. Lee

I must say by way of preface that I am not talking of the lower East Side. Your ward ten was, back in 1895, crowded to the extent of 644 people to the acre. Our greatest present crowding in Boston is 186 in one ward, the next worst being 119, and the two next being 101 and 102 respectively. To create the lower East Side you must put about five of the most crowded quarters of other American cities one on top of the other.

Premising that I am not talking about the lower East Side but about the problem of congestion as it ordinarily exists, I wish to present not a general argument for playgrounds but certain suggestions as to how the play problem can be met by other means than playgrounds as the term is usually understood, and by uses of the playground that are especially economical of space.

THE STREETS

In the first place there is the use of the streets.

"And the streets of the city shall be filled with boys and girls playing in the streets thereof."

I imagine that the streets of Jerusalem at the time the above prophecy was made

were occupied much more by beasts of burden and much less by wheeled vehicles, especially automobiles, than are those of the modern city. Nevertheless, there are a great many streets and parts of streets in every American city, even in New York itself, that can be, and that are, daily used for games. Indeed, the streets are at present the principal playground for city children; and they will continue to be so until we have gone much further in finding substitutes than any city has yet begun to go.

Children dig in the gutter, hold meetings and play games on the steps and on the slides beside them, and play jump rope and tops, marbles and hop scotch on the sidewalks and smoother streets. And the hurdy-gurdy man is the modern Orpheus, to whom the children dance, while the wilder creatures, such as hack men, truck drivers and pedestrians, acquiesce.

And play in the streets is not all of the individualistic or of the comparatively quiet sort. It includes such organized and lively games as prisoners' base and even baseball and football. To take an instance in New York itself: One day in the second week of December I paid a visit to some of the playgrounds

on the opper (not the lower) East Side and I observed the following games and play going on in some of the streets in that neighborhood:

In a block on Third avenue there were two pairs of children swinging on the railings of front yards, three boys playing with buckboards, five playing football, and six shooting craps on the sidewalk. Between East River park and John Jay park along First avenue there were two more buckboards, some children playing hop-scotch, and (an inspiration I never saw outside of New York) four boys carrying fires in pails, besides a number of others collected round a fire on the ground. In a block on Seventy-seventh street, there were eight boys playing football with a bag, six others playing it with a ball, and seven playing craps. On Seventy-eighth street, as I passed it in the elevated, I saw a game of football carried on with a tin can. In Seventy-ninth street, which is broad, two boys were using bicycle wheels for hoops,

there was a big game of hockey, and a very good game combining the elements of tip cat and baseball, a boy knocking the cat as far as he could and then running to first, the others trying to throw him out as in a baseball game. At Eightieth street there was a policeman, and nothing more exciting going on than a couple of games of tag and two boys who had divided a pair of roller skates between them. Eighty-first, second, and third streets did not contain any children. At Eighty-fourth the Italians began, and though there was a good deal of individual play of the bawling and running-round kind, there were no games,—a fact partly accounted for by the teacher at Jefferson park, who told me that the Italian parents were apt to punish their children for playing instead of contributing to the family support.

I believe that the condition thus observed in New York is fairly typical. I believe that in most tenement house, residential or suburban districts the street



Shot piled up on a horizontal map, one for each school child in the greater city. Manhattan and Brooklyn are thickly covered. In Queens and Richmond the shot roll around empty spaces that represent vacant lots.

is used extensively for play, and it is the early training school even for the greater national games.

Then in certain cities—probably in all cities—some special kinds of street play have received special development. In Boston and other Massachusetts cities and towns—and I suppose in most northern cities,—coasting is legalized on certain streets, and is practically permitted by the police on many others. In Boston also, baseball and modifications of it are played in the streets under most adverse conditions. In one game running and kicking a football is substituted for batting. In another the same place is taken by hitting with a stick a small piece of rubber hose that is leaned up from the street against the curb-stone. In Washington, with its many square miles of asphalt,—constituting one-half of the total area of the city—roller skating has naturally developed. In Philadelphia, the two characteristic activities of the young seem to be prisoners' base and tribal warfare between street gangs,—the first presumably a tribute to Philadelphia politics, the latter a characteristic manifestation of Quaker blood—although the only game that I happened to see on a recent visit was one of baseball carried on alongside of the ancient Friends' Meetinghouse.

I believe this problem of play in the streets is one of the great problems of congestion: I do not see why the practice of setting aside streets for play, as in the instance of coasting above mentioned, cannot be carried much further. Traffic is not in this case excluded but is merely warned what it has to expect, so that it will neither suffer damage itself nor inflict it on the children. There are in the residential and tenement house districts of every city, hundreds of cross streets in which there is practically no through traffic and very little of any kind; often there are streets cut off by a railroad, in which it is almost as safe to play as if they were regularly set aside for the purpose. If we allow our streets to be used for the play of grown-ups in the form of riding bicycles and saddle horses and automobiles, why should we not allow them to be used for the play of children, which is a mat-

ter of vital necessity not only to the children themselves, but to the future progress and success of our democracy? Of course the automobile game would be forbidden, and permitted only to actual residents and under close restrictions in the streets that were set aside for the other kinds.

I think every playground can do a great deal by teaching the kind of game—such as prisoners' base and games in which a soft ball is used—that can be carried on in the streets without breaking either the windows of the citizens or the citizens themselves.

The required supervision can be supplied in part at least by the police. The police should be taught that their work includes doing something positive in the way of seeing that the street life of children is wholesome and such as to keep them out of mischief. Policemen have rendered important service in the early days of the playground movement, for instance at Seward park, New York, and at one of the playgrounds in Chicago; and there is no reason why they should not continue to render such service, especially in connection with play in the streets. If they will settle disputes and see that the game goes well and fairly they will accomplish more than by many arrests. As Professor Shaler said, when some of the members of the faculty at Harvard found fault with him because his courses were too easy: "Gentlemen, if you can tell me any way in which I can make them easier I shall be very glad to do so. I consider it my business to teach men, not to condition them."

I know the traditional thing is to talk against the street as an educational institution. People say that it is a place where children learn to swear; but a child who cannot acquire that linguistic accomplishment in the school—or even in the home—must, as a rule, be so lacking in the gift of tongues that even the most brilliant opportunity would be thrown away upon him. And the evils of the street will certainly be lessened in proportion as it is converted into a playground. Children who are actually playing football or baseball or prisoners' base, or carrying on any other actual

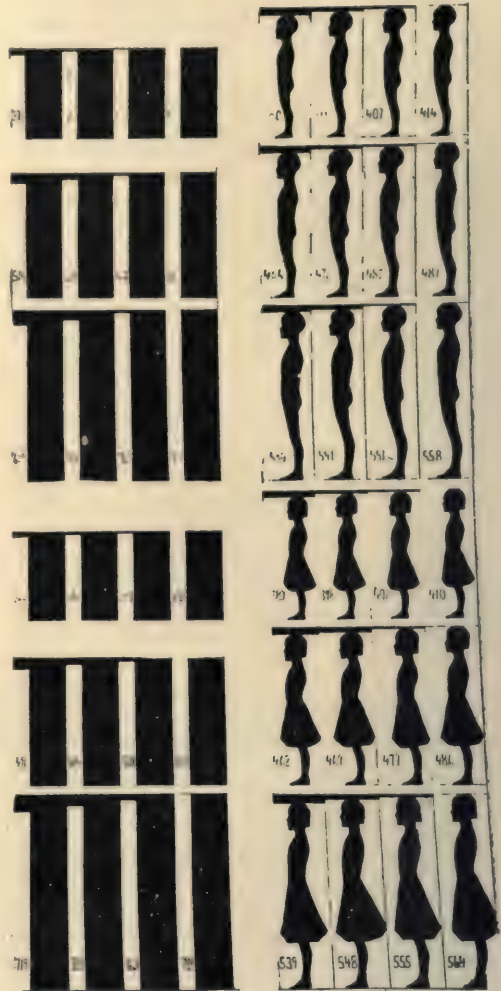
game or play in the street, are getting good and not harm from the experience. And even the positive evils of street life must be much less than those of the secluded alleyway or empty lot, and similar places apart from the policing presence of the public, whether in the city or in a country town.

I do not mean to say that the street will ever be a substitute for the real playground. It usually lacks what I consider to be the first essential, namely, an opportunity to play continuous and uninterrupted games. The development of the power of holding and carrying out a concrete purpose is the greatest of all the benefits that play confers, while the interrupted habit of mind, that must to some extent be fostered by playing with one eye on the traffic, is most undesirable. Play also usually requires supervision, which play in the street has been hitherto without, though I do not see that it need necessarily remain so.

BACK YARDS

Every house has a back as well as a front; and back yards could be much more used than they are, and very profitably used, especially by the little children. In my own I have a piazza on top of an L which the children play on all the time that we are in town—the principal, and almost the only equipment being a sand-box, which is used as the eternal, or rock-ribbed portion of a hill for coasting as long as the snow lasts. That this institution is a successful one seems to be indicated by its being reproduced by four out of six neighbors in our one small block.

I have found also in a back yard in the country, that a space of about fifteen by thirty feet may be made very fascinating by a system of ladders so arranged that you can play tag on them. Much satisfactory climbing can be done up the back (as also up the front) of a house, especially if it is ornamented with stone trimmings or balconies of any kind; and some small girls of my acquaintance thus became well equipped to shine as second story thieves,—an interesting application of the modern idea of vocational training.



CONGESTION OF CHILDREN.

A chart prepared by the Junior League to show graphically the relation of room and growth. The first three horizontal columns are of boys, the second three of girls, respectively 5, 7, and 9 years of age. The child at the left, in each line, lived in a one room house, the others in 2, 3 and 4 room houses. The 4 room child, taking averages for a large number, is taller and weighs more.

THE ROOF

And then there is the roof. New York last summer carried on eleven school roof playgrounds in Manhattan and two in Brooklyn, both for vacation schools and in the evening; and the same are occasionally used in recess. In Boston we have one school roof playground, which, during the ten weeks of the vacation playground season last summer, accom-

modated three simultaneous games of baseball. Of course there are questions of stairways; and the janitor is always with us; but on the whole it has been demonstrated that the school roof is a valuable resource wherever congestion is great and the price of land is high, though I have not yet worked out a formula for the combination of these two variables in accordance with which the curve of profitable resort to the roof can be mathematically plotted. Given the proper roof, its use is only limited by the cost of supervision.

Opposite my house there is a roof that has been much frequented by a series of babies with their appropriate mounting of nurses, mothers, etc., and another roof in my vicinity is similarly used. Given a non-locomotary baby or a sufficient fence, this sort of use could be much extended. The greatest disadvantage as compared with the street is that it is not supervised by the general public; that it is indeed practically invisible to everybody, including the mother herself,—unless she can arrange to have a looking-glass rigged up on the opposite house. In the case of houses with from one to three families, the question, like that of the school roof, is largely one of supervision.

When we come to the tenement house the problem becomes a more difficult one. Where every day is washing day and the roof is the drying ground it is difficult to see what time is left for play. Where, however, space can be saved from necessities of drying, I think tenement roofs could be used to some extent as playgrounds, provided that the problem of supervision can in some way be solved. In the absence of an airship under unusually good control, it would seem as though supervision to be at all economical would have to be not by the single house but by the block. The problem of fencing also is difficult on account of the many skylights, stairwells, etc., and because the firemen object to fences as liable to obstruct their work. This last difficulty perhaps could be met by having any partitions between houses so made, that the firemen could easily smash them and the children could not. I think that, in spite of all these difficulties, there

is a future for the tenement house roof as a sand garden for children under six, an age at which they will not greatly wear it out, at which they can be occupied fairly well within the space of a sand box and the path around it, and at which they require much less supervision than at a later age.

Another important use of the roof, on tenement houses and elsewhere, is for gardening. The North End of Boston where the Italians live, is said during the summer months to look like a flower garden, as seen from the steeple of the Old North Church; families that have to leave for work at six will appear on the roof at five to water their plants, which include not only flowers but corn and other vegetables.

There are roof playgrounds at some settlements, and perhaps the future playground of this sort will not be on tenement houses but on buildings used for business or mercantile purposes.

The many-storied playground suggested by Rev. R. Kidner of Boston and by Dr. Gulick is another device to meet the problem of congestion, but is not one requiring any special comment.

SPACE ECONOMIZING GAMES

Here we must remember the element of time. A fast game in which ten boys take part may exercise as many in an afternoon as a slow game which accommodates three times that number within the same space. I think the best games for this purpose, for the bigger boys, are modifications of baseball—such as long ball, indoor ball, playground ball (the new Chicago game)—volley ball, ring toss or quoits, prisoners' base and football,—the last named not including, of course, the kicking game. It seems as though gymnastic work might also be made successful for this purpose. It needs a teacher to every dozen boys, but with a corps of leaders from among the boys themselves, it would seem as though the teacher might be multiplied indefinitely, although I cannot say I have ever seen such a system very successful on an outdoor playground.

For middle-sized boys also there is space-economizing apparatus, namely,

the kind which, like an effective patent medicine, creates its own demand, the end of one drink suggesting the beginning of the next. This class is made up exclusively of those things in the use of which the element of falling comes in, namely, swings, trapezes, traveling rings, giant stride—and for older and more specialized boys the flying rings and horizontal bar;—tilts and teeter ladders; sliding poles, and most popular of all, a plain, smooth wooden or metal coast.

For children under six of course the sand box is an excellent provision; and for the small girls and for the boys below the baseball age there are a large variety of games such as fox and geese, hunt the squirrel, three-deep, and London bridge, which always seems to go. Indeed, the carrying on of a crowded playground for children under ten years of age is a problem which has been very generally solved.

As bearing on the matter of making

all existing spaces available, including the streets, such plans as Dr. Gulick's system of school competition, and a similar scheme adapted to country conditions introduced by Myron T. Scudder at New Paltz, New York,—plans by which all the children, and not merely a special athletic class, are made to feel an interest and an ambition in regard to their physical development and to prepare themselves for tests through which they receive a regular physical rating of some sort—are of great merit. A boy who is ambitious to bring down his time in the hundred-yard dash, or to haul himself up to his chin a certain number of times, will find ways of acquiring the strength and speed under most adverse circumstances. He will, as it were, stretch his environment to his purpose, and find a way just as children find a way of dancing in the street whenever a hurdy-gurdy plays. Here as elsewhere the inner music is as important as the outward opportunity.

Congestion and Sweated Labor

Mrs. Florence Kelley

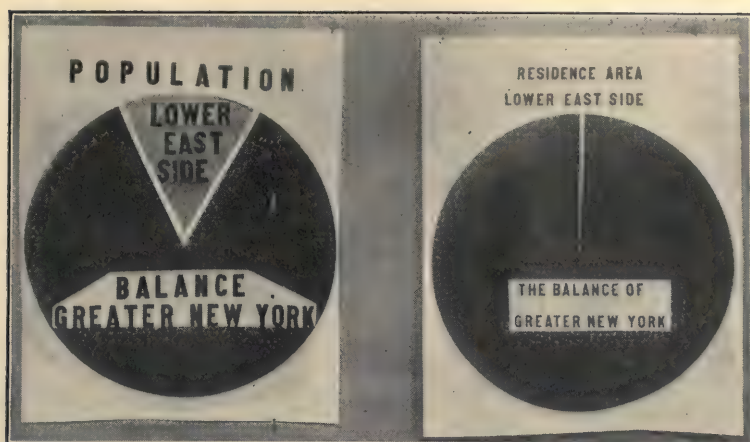
It is, I think, the object of these conferences to interpret a little, some of the significant things in the exhibit which might easily be overlooked. Of these two bear especially upon the theme assigned to me.

One of the most significant objects is so small that it commonly fails to attract due observation. It is a little colored photograph of a tall tenement-house in Berlin built in a flaring triangle, with one side open, and a charming garden within. The city owns the land upon which that tenement house stands; the imperial government lends, out of the insurance funds, the money where-with it is built; the builders are citizens of Berlin united in a co-operative society, some of whose members are tenants of the building. The house is fire-proof in the German sense, not in the sense in which we use the word in New York. Its occupants are in no danger of being burned to death with their dwelling.

The walls are sound proof, the neighbor's piano cannot be heard through the wall. Since there is no speculative ground landlord, there is no need for the tenants to take in sweatshop work whereby to earn their extortionate rent. For there is no extortionate rent. The city holds the land for the people. The government lends the money in part because this is a safe way to invest insurance funds, and in part to insure healthful housing conditions for the citizens, incidentally reducing the prevalence of tuberculosis.

In Germany the fact is recognized and acted upon that the housing problems of great cities cannot be successfully dealt with by restriction. The German people, therefore, have betaken themselves to the constructive method of dealing with housing and sweating.

Here, in New York city, we have sweating on a larger scale than ever before. There are more people working



DISPARITY OF POPULATION AND AREA ON THE LOWER EAST SIDE.

in their homes. There is less hope in the hearts of those who have tried in vain for years to restrain or restrict the system, that success can be achieved by the methods hitherto pursued.

We have utterly failed in the attempt to house the people in New York beautifully or wholesomely by methods of restriction applied to the builders or the owners of the houses. Unless we include in the word light beside sunlight and daylight, also twilight, dusk and artificial light, we misuse a good and simple word when we speak of the inner lower rooms of new-law tenements six stories high as being light. In many of the rooms of the newest houses, artificial light must be used throughout the day if the rooms are occupied.

And in the new houses sweating goes on as much as in the old ones. For let us face the fact: Why do we have sweating? Because the people must pay the ground landlord for the use of his land. Everywhere land rent increases incessantly. Everywhere, east and west, the most convincing indication that a cheerful optimist can bring forward of the thriving condition of his city is the rising value of real estate.

Now people must work to pay rent. A tenement house that I know in the lower east side has been sold five times in five years, and each time the rent has been raised so that the selling price might be higher. Rents are capitalized,

the selling price rests on them, and a purchaser is found because the tenants can do no better than stay where they are, crowding if possible even closer together, and work harder to earn more money to pay more rent.

What do the tenants do when the rent is raised? They give up one or more rooms; they take in lodgers, they take in work, they send out the children to work; or they do all these things at once. For this children sell papers, illegally young and illegally late, they work with their parents in the kitchen and bedroom before and after school, and when they are too young to go to school.

The exhibit of the National Consumers' League is a map of the most congested district in the world, showing houses licensed to have sewing done in them, and houses to which licenses have been refused. In them all alike, work has been found going on. Legally or illegally, money for rent is earned because it must be earned.

Over against this pressure of relentless, unyielding necessity we have tried fruitlessly for many years to place restrictions. The result has been consistent unrelieved failure. We are to-day sending out from tenements in this city, loathsome filth diseases of the skin which must fill with shame everyone who sees the conditions among which work is done. These are not indicated

upon the twin map exhibited by the National Consumers' League, because they are not registered by the Board of Health. That map, therefore, indicates only cases of tuberculosis, diphtheria, scarlet fever and measles registered from houses licensed or refused licenses, in which work goes on in the most crowded districts in the world.

We have this growing, revolting evil of sweated work because for some inscrutable reason we are willing to go on from decade to decade, leaving the landowner master of the situation while we wind about the unhappy tenement-dweller ever more red-tape. The tenement-house owner, too, we bind with new and more restrictions. And every year, both tenant and houseowner pay to the ground landlord a larger share of the earnings of the community. Whether a manufacturer owns the building in which his business goes on, or whether he rents a loft in a building owned by another, he, too, works to pay rent to the landowner.

Why is the landowner alone immune to restriction?

It is now proposed to treat the manufacturers with as scant leniency as the owner of an inflammable frame building, to restrict them as the sweaters victims, the home workers, have hitherto been restricted. But what of the manufacturers' ground landlords?

The relation of the landowners to the city and the citizens is indicated in the second of the exhibits which may fail, without the help of interpretation, to receive the attention which is its due. I refer to a tiny cube, one-tenth of an inch square, which represents the value of Manhattan in 1626, namely \$24.

Below that almost invisibly tiny cube stands another cube, more than four feet long and high, drawn to the same scale as the tiny one. This represents the present land value of Manhattan, more than \$2,000,000,000.

The German cities are buying great tracts of land both within and without their borders and are holding them for the citizens. Three centuries hence, according to the methods now in use, the growth of the cities will benefit the citi-

zens, not serve as it serves in Greater New York to intensify the struggle for bare food, after the rent is paid. The contrast indicated in our two cubes can never there arise. The joint intelligence of enlightened modern cities, of an enlightened national insurance department, and of successful co-operative societies of citizens, is solving before our eyes the problem of city congestion and of sweating in Germany.

Here, in the city of New York, whenever it is suggested that the city might well buy large tracts of land to mitigate the hardships inflicted by the landowners, it is assumed that this is impossible. It is asserted by otherwise intelligent people, that we cannot have a commission which can be trusted to perform this indispensable service. It is honestly believed by persons of sound mind, that while the Department of Education may be trusted with our children, and the Water Department with our lives, enough wise and honest citizens cannot be found to administer tracts of municipal land as disinterestedly and as wisely as our schools and our water supply are administered.

Moreover, it is declared, the constitution forever bars the way to city holdings of land unless it can be shown that they are for a public use. But can any public use of greater importance be conceived than housing the people in dwellings at once wholesome, beautiful and within the reach of the poor? And who knows whether the constitution really does bar the way? Only when the highest court has spoken do we know what the constitution permits or forbids. And when we superstitiously refrain from attempting legislation conferring powers upon our cities, we are depriving the highest courts of the opportunity to make known the law. Never shall we deal effectively with either congestion of population or sweating, until our highest courts are given an opportunity to show that they are no less intelligent than the courts of other nations, no less awake to the need that the vital growth of modern communities shall be guided by the intelligent intervention of the citizens, and freed from the blind, unrestrained greed of the landowners.

The Consequences of Overcrowding

Felix Adler

The consequences of overcrowded tenement houses are often physically revolting, and at all times full of moral peril. I have been impressed, as every one must be who is familiar with conditions among the poor, with the mental distress suffered by them in consequence of the high rents they are compelled to pay. The haunting fear of not being able to meet the demands of the landlord, probably counts for more in the actual hardships endured by the poor, than any other single cause of trouble.

I am not at all disposed to think that the rigid enforcement of the laws would stop overcrowding, simply for the reason that the laws cannot be rigidly enforced. The rents are too high, relative to the income of large sections of the city's population. Considering the market rate of

dwelling-house space, the poor cannot afford to pay for the space they require. The consequence is that they are compelled to squeeze together, and by such devices as taking in boarders or sub-letting, to reduce the amount of rent they pay. It is terrible to think how the relations that exist in society are in many ways the opposite of those that one would morally approve, for instance, that the heaviest burden of rent should be laid on the shoulders of those who are least competent to bear it; that the ratio of rent to income is largest among the poor, and grows progressively less as one ascends the scale of affluence and wealth. Must this be always so? In this age when so many hearts are stirred by the thought of social justice, are we not clever enough to devise a way of easing at least this



A CORRECTIVE FOR CONGESTION.

In Vienna and Cologne the height of buildings is regulated and areas reserved for factories.

one grievous burden of the poor, the burden of rent?

It seems to me there is great opportunity to do something effectual in this direction at this very moment. The city of New York is passing through a critical period in its history, a period of transition. It stretches its arms as it were in both directions, across the rivers that have cooped it in. Before long the tubes and bridges will be completed that shall make the relatively low-priced land of Long Island and Jersey accessible. This state of things offers a golden opportunity. If we do nothing, contenting ourselves with awaiting developments, the unoccupied land which is fit for dwellings will be bought up by speculators, and the increased value of the land—created by the population that dwells upon it—will accrue to the benefit of the “commercial citizen.” If, on the other hand, we are ready to practice the kind of foresight that thus far has been so rare in American communities, if we are minded to prevent evils rather than to cure them, it would seem that measures should now be taken on a grand scale to acquire land while it is still cheap, with a view to consecrating it to the dwellings of the wage earning class, keeping the rent down for the years to come by exacting a moderate interest on the price now paid.

The City and Suburban Homes Company and other associations that have preceded it have pointed the way. But we need operations on a far vaster scale than they have yet been able to undertake, if the permanent advantage of the millions that will live in and around this great urban center is to be secured. Statesman-like foresight, statesman-like pre-vision, largeness of horizon, and prompt action seem to be called for. I have not a word to say in disparagement of all that has thus far been accomplished. Distinct gains have undoubtedly been made. The successive Tenement House Commissions and the laws which they have been instrumental in putting on the statute books, our admirable Tenement House Department itself, the parks, the playgrounds, the new movement to convert the public schools into social centers, are in part evidence of what has been accomplished, in part an earnest of what may be. But in the face of the huge evils that still confront us, no serious social worker can be disposed to dwell with complacency on past achievements. A supreme effort—or rather a series of efforts remains to be put forth; and this congestion exhibit, for which the committee in charge deserves our utmost recognition, should be the means of calling forth such efforts.

The Way Out

E. R. L. Gould

President City and Suburban Homes Company

The “attitude of mind” towards this congestion problem is very important. The public should understand and it should be led to admit that congestion in cities is a very real and vital problem. It should learn that bad housing lies at the very basis of drunkenness, immorality, physical deterioration and general uselessness. Herding is at the bottom of almost every one of our moral and social ills. Do not therefore yourselves, nor let your friends think that in dealing directly with the effects of a congested living environment they are helping the so-

lution of the problem. They must go back to the basis—the elimination of congestion, the prevention of human herding.

Legislation can afford what I may call a negative assistance. I mean by this that the state can pass laws and the city administration enforce them, requiring a high standard of hygiene, sanitation and privacy in new buildings and a measurable reformation in old buildings. For example, the present tenement house law, which was secured only after a vast amount of agitation and sacrificial serv-

ice, is reasonably effective; it has not unduly interfered with legitimate property interests, has helped a million people to a higher type of tenement home and it ought to be kept unaltered except, possibly, in minor details. We must, however, be constantly on the alert to see that the law is properly enforced, and above all to see that specious pretexts of one sort or another are not used to pass amendments to interfere with its salutary provisions. At the present moment two measures are before the legislature at Albany, either one of which, if passed, would mean reversion to conditions which more than almost anything else have promoted the survival and extension of tuberculosis in congested regions of our city.

There is much yet to be done on the positive side. Housing reform, through the building of model tenements and suburban settlements, should be undertaken on a large scale. Years ago it was thought that it was impossible to unite business and philanthropy in a large way. I remember that when the City and Suburban Homes Company was established, eleven years ago, a very good friend seriously asked me why I deliberately sought to waste my life in such an attempt. The years, however, have demonstrated the absurdity of the contention since this company, established on a commercial basis and run with the idea of affording a reasonable dividend to the capital invested and giving to tenants the highest advantages of sanitation and comfort compatible with reasonable rates of rent, has been so successful that the company's investments now reach five and a half million dollars, and its dividend disbursements are four and a half per cent a year. I can best measure for you the appreciation of its two thousand tenants by reference to the fact that during the last five years while the amounts collected as rents from the tenants of its various estates were \$947,843.76, the losses during the same period from bad debts were \$1,456.89, or the wholly insignificant proportion of fourteen one-hundredths of one per cent. London has more than one hundred millions invested in model tenements, and New York ought

to have five times as much invested in that way. If this were done some real impression would be made upon the problem of congestion in this city. This, while not the only, is nevertheless the most hopeful element in the solution. We need not wait for millionaires and multimillionaires to do it. The savings of the people now placed in savings banks and the proceeds largely loaned by the savings banks to owners of tenement property on mortgage, might better be invested directly by the great masses of the people in the shares of a well managed, substantial model tenement corporation, and if this were done and co-operation established also with the very rich, we need not wait long to have this city practically made over with comfortable, healthy homes, and with none of the present drawbacks of herding and congestion.

Let people learn to capitalize their philanthropy. Supporters of churches, educational institutions and philanthropic organizations of one kind or another, who are accustomed to give annually to such objects, might very conveniently set aside a principal sum, the interest on which would represent their annual donations. Let us suppose, by way of example, that a man is accustomed to donate nine hundred dollars in this way. This sum represents four and a half per cent upon a capital investment of twenty thousand dollars. Let the donor therefore invest twenty thousand dollars in the shares of a well established and well administered model tenement company paying four and a half per cent to its shareholders, instead of investing twenty thousand dollars in railroad bonds. Under the suggestion made, the market value of the investment is not likely to change very much, while in the latter instance, that it is subject to unfortunate fluctuations is a fact some of us are too sensitive to talk about. Who would not prefer that capital set apart for philanthropy should be doing double instead of single work? Here, the original sum is doing one kind of specific public service while the income is distributed amongst various objects of public, religious or charitable welfare which elicit the interest of the owner.

Congestion a State Not a City Problem

Morris Loeb

You cannot expect people to leave a place for the benefit of others, or go elsewhere if they are not offered better opportunities. I have studied the problem for a number of years, and I feel the real solution is not to be found by the city, but by the state. It is necessary that our rural communities, which by the nature of things are conducted by persons of less means, less initiative and perhaps even less intelligence, should be guided by the state more than they now are. I think the real, serious cause that is driving many people to the cities, immigrants among others, or keeping them from spreading out into the country, is the lack of safety of personal property in the country, the lack of means of easy communication, of proper school, medical and hospital facilities. If you think of it you will see that all these things are out of the reach of the ordinary rural dweller. There are no police, except, perhaps, a town constable, who has taken the position because no one else wanted it, or because he was too old for anything else; no doctor worthy of the name, or if there should be such a one, he cannot be reached without great difficulty and loss of time; if a person is sick no professional nurses are obtainable; there are no hospitals within reach. A child cannot go to high school without leaving home for a year, as there is no high school near a small town. Think of these things and you will understand the conditions which make for city life as against life in the village or small town. Now it is the

state and not the village or small town itself which must provide the remedy. There are the roads—impassable even for racers to Paris—libraries not attainable, banking facilities not obtainable, no opportunities for the enjoyment of theatres, parks and concerts.

I also suggest that we must not always think it is the immigrant who is doing the overcrowding. It is a fact that in every large city there is a certain amount of proletariat, if I may use that word, which is necessarily drawn into the service of the city and of its richer residents. I have been in cities all over Europe and America, and all show the same general condition. It can be said that there are lower strata and higher strata; here the lower strata happen to be the immigrants. In Paris, Berlin, London, and cities such as Edinburgh and Glasgow the lower strata also exist in their population, and I believe are even worse than those in New York, because our lower strata at least consist of a population struggling upward, whereas theirs are continuously and hopelessly tending downward.

I am not a professional slummer, but one day I got into a "wind" in Edinburgh, and I have never seen anything so bad in the slums of New York. It is therefore an urban condition and not an immigration condition with which we have to deal. We do not yet understand how to make our small towns and suburbs as attractive as the smaller communities are on the other side, and I think that is the real vital problem.

Death Rate of Children Under 5 Years. Per 1000 Living at Those Ages, In Certain Square Blocks, 1905-1906.

Block No. 1 Italian	87.05
Block No. 2 Italian	82.2
Block No. 3 Italian	81.6
Block No. 4 Jewish	80.5
Block No. 5 German	72.12
Block No. 6 Italian	71.7
Block No. 7 Italian	70.8
Block No. 8 Italian	70.5
New York 1905	71
Berlin 1905	73.4
London 1905	78
England & Wales 1905	75

This table is one of a group of eight showing Italian death rates in selected blocks. They were prepared under the supervision of Dr. William H. Guilfooy of the Department of Health, by suggestion of Dr. Antonio Stella on behalf of the Italian government.

The Italians in Congested Districts

Gino C. Speranza

The great though unsuspected evil effect of congestion on Italians is psychological even more than physical. By this I mean that the suggestion of the worst or of the weakest is spread easily over the congested mass, whereas it would be sterile of results in a freer environment. Many an Italian who never would have thought of doing any other labor than that in the open air, some fine day hears that a neighbor of his is working in a cigar factory. Ninety-nine chances in one hundred that cigarmaker is a weakling who could not handle pick and shovel and, conscious of his physical deficiency, probably boasts what easy money factory work yields, where a man sits down all day and after work "goes home with the factory girls." The idea strikes the shoveller as novel and worth considering. The greater wage with the pick may for a while hold him, but if a day of temporary discontent or lassitude comes he digs up the factory ideal. I remember, a year ago, sending home a gang of strong, enduring Italian laborers from North Carolina, where they could perform hard work in the labor camps where I had found them, but one of them, just the one who was undersized and lazy, got a job in a factory on his return to the city. That entire gang is at the factory now.

I dwell on this psychological side of the influence of congested living, as we will see it especially active in influencing the civic relations of the Italian.

But so far, industrially, it is the Italian woman that has suffered most through congestion. The Italian wives or sisters, who in Italy used to work around the house or in the fields, never receiving compensation, see the "girl on the lower floor" go out every day and earn good money that gives her, what appears to the newcomer, not only splendid independence, but even the undreamed of joy of wearing Grand street millinery. The home becomes hateful, the traditional restraint which was considered a domestic virtue becomes a symbol of slavery, and the domestic woman will become

a factory hand. Unused to such so-called freedom, she will misuse it as a starved man who overeats.

Congested living, working its evil spell on the morals of the Italians among us, in so far as it leads women to industrial work is, in my opinion, a greater evil, for it tends to destroy one of the finest of the Italian traditions, the unity of family life, and leads to the destruction of the Italian ideal of the home.

So likewise, in the civic relations of the Italian, our congested living works varied evils. One bad idea, one wrong notion, spreads by contagion over the mass, and it is the shrewd and often the dishonest that take advantage of this vehicle of contagion, which, under certain conditions, might be made a vehicle for good. The first to profit by it is the so-called Italian banker. I am not one of those who think all things bad of the Italian banker and of the Italian *padrone*. I think he has been and is an absolute necessity in the life of the expatriated Italian peasant. It will take years and years to obviate the economic necessity of the Italian *padrone*; we will have and we are having better and better *padroni*. The aim of those who wish to help Italians here should be to improve the quality of the *padroni* rather than to destroy them; to imitate their methods and use such methods to good end. It is against the abuse of the powers exercised by the banker that I appeal. Urban congestion is the very condition of life for the banker and the *padrone*; in exact ratio with the topographical nearness of his clients and *paesani* does he control them for good or bad. Each street has its particular region of Italy; Elizabeth street is claimed by the Western Sicilian; Catharine and Monroe streets by the Eastern Sicilian; Mulberry by the Neapolitans; Bleeker by the Genoese; MacDougal by the North Italians. The more crowded the street on which the bank is, the better for the banker; better yet, the more crowded is the block where the bank has its habitat; best of all, the

more crowded with *paesani* the tenement in which operates the banker. Americans at times wonder how quickly a *padrone* can supply a large demand for laborers; it is simply that the *padrone* lives with them—and at his order the regiments of *paesani* turn out of the barracks of his tenement. Surely the *padrone* is not going to help you spread out his constituents.

Likewise the average Italian banker could not do the varied kind of business he does unless he had his clientele under close physical vigilance. He could not take the risk, even for a larger consideration than he gets now, to go bail for his clients who are in trouble; he could not, as he undoubtedly often does, make advance on wages and render services of value where the compensation is contingent on his client's work in the future.

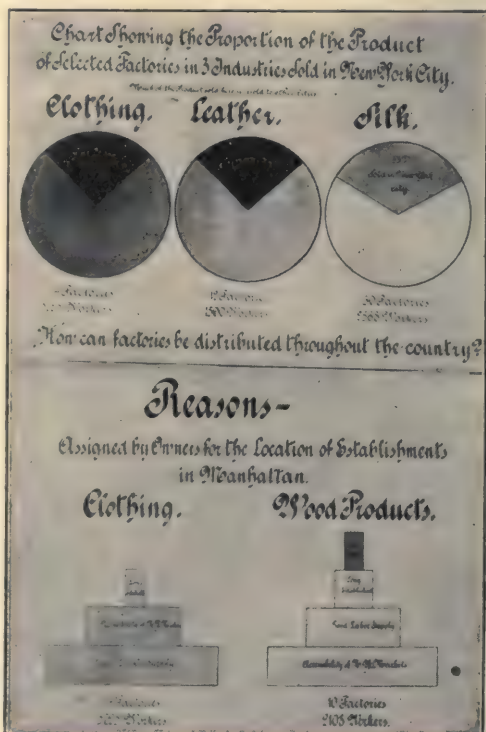
This power to control a mass, which through its very congestion is more like a large family than a healthy community of independent units, is shrewdly used not only by the banker and the *padrone* but by the politician. The voter among this controllable and controlled mass is the easy prey of the political boss, an easily worked political machine.

The intimacy, I might say, gossip nature of such congested districts massed according to the towns or villages in Italy, while it is a religiously closed book to the outsider, is too open a book for the insider; none of its members can do anything that it does not become the property of the entire community. If this stopped at harmless gossip—it would merit no attention. But the fact is, that it is taken advantage of in two important ways by the criminally inclined in the community. If Antonio puts \$100 in the bank, if Giuseppe's barber shop shows evidence of prosperity, if Gaetano especially pampers his children and dresses them well, if Michele gets a little extra money from some unexpected source, all the *paesani* in the crowd know it. And very likely the day after Antonio has made his bank deposit or Michele has got his extra cash, each will receive what is picturesquely called a Black Hand demand. Or perhaps Gaetano, who has shown his fondness for his children too

much and is also prosperous, one fine day will find that his little Beppino is missing.

Not only this, but the close knowledge of each other in these congested communities is not merely limited to the present status of its members but to their family histories. Therefore, if in the past Gaetano has had some trouble, big or little, with the police or otherwise, that fact is known to the community—he is vulnerable or invulnerable according to the willingness of the members of the community to let the past be dead. I am thoroughly convinced that with very few exceptions, so called Black Hand threats are never made against an irreproachable person—that is against one who either in the past or the present has not something, not necessarily criminal or immoral, but something in his life that he would prefer to keep hidden.

The other way in which this close intimacy is a culture bed for crime, is that differences between individual members lead to divisions into criminal feuds. If Antonio insults Giuseppe and it remained



between them, they might often settle it if not forgive it. But everybody knows of the insult passed and it would seem cowardly to submit before such a large audience. This may lead to divisions into partisans for the offender and for the offended—and a quarrel between two becomes a war between two parties. That same communal spirit nourished into a spirit of intimate fellowship results into other dangerous principles; that if any member of the community commits a crime the community must protect him; above all will he be hid and sheltered from the outsider, from the police officer and the detective.

This congested living, this communal life is so intimately close that it might seem well nigh useless to hope that the breeze of American views will blow through its narrow ways and alleys. The tendency to congregate, especially in a strange land, is natural, neither this conference, nor any man or body of men can hope to find means of preventing it—it would be like fighting instinct or nature. But while it is in vain to fight such a tendency, we may hope to destroy or minimize its almost absolute segre-

gation. Every city, even in Utopia, will have districts where the rich live apart from the poor, the scholars from the market men, the lovers of freedom from the lovers of comfort, there will be aggregations of tastes if not of conditions; but even these separate units must constitute one great whole; there must be one municipal spirit, its denizens must constitute one people and not distinct clans. So the danger of our Little Italies, which in no way reflect the beauty and greatness of real Italy, lies not in their physical congestion, as much as in their spirit of aloofness, in the lack in their denizens of a sense of joint responsibility with all the people, not merely with some of them. These aliens must learn that they do not merely live their physical existence in New York, but constitute jointly with others the life of the city; that they must and can aid to make New York, not a bad copy of some ancient little Italian feudalism, but a great cosmopolitan city, different from other great centers in this essential regard—that its cosmopolitanism has its origin and life in the cosmopolitanism of the working classes.

Putting Men on Farms in New York State

C. W. Larmon

New York State Department of Agriculture

As a result of the exodus of the young men from the farms in New York during the depression which followed the Civil War, the depreciation of land values was an inevitable result. As industrial establishments grew and the young men accepted positions along those lines, values of farm lands continued to depreciate until, in certain sections of the state, many farms were left unoccupied, to be worked only at intervals by the neighbors. Large numbers of them are still in this condition. The abandoned farm, so called, is of little value except to reforest, but thousands of cheap and unoccupied farms have in them the elements of successful and profitable cultivation, and the prices at which they can be purchased bring them within the means of those who have very little to invest.

In carrying on the work imposed by the law creating the Bureau of Information and Statistics, it was necessary at the outset to collect information of agricultural conditions, farms for sale, information covering the number of people required for farm work by the farmers of the state, and incidentally to secure such information as would interest people in the agricultural opportunities afforded by the state. Information was soon collected in relation to nearly 2,000 farms, located in all parts of the state, and covering a range of values from those of the wholly deserted, unproductive farms to many of the very best in the state. This information was put in bulletin form, and circulated to the number of 10,000 copies throughout the state and Union, and also in foreign countries,

calling the attention of those desiring to engage in agriculture to the unequalled opportunities afforded in this state. Large numbers of these farms were purchased at prices ranging from \$10 to \$40 per acre and were located in most congenial surroundings, with markets, schools, churches, good social conditions and upon good roads, which could not be duplicated in any other state for possibly two or three times the amount of the purchase prices. Later, more information was secured and a new bulletin, much larger than the first, was issued, and through the information contained in that work, four hundred of the number were sold in the last few months by the owners at figures which totalled near one and one-half million dollars.

It was found that in order to supply labor for farm work it was necessary to largely employ immigrants, not only those who had recently arrived, but many who had arrived in years previous and had located in the cities but desired to again engage in agriculture. In this way some 15,000, a fair percentage of them with families, have found positions upon the farms of the state. In accomplishing this work, we have advertised through the medium of the leading newspapers of the state, have employed men who spoke various languages, have worked in connection with various agencies in this city, have been in communication with many of the consuls of the city, and have even gone to the extent of sending a representative to several foreign countries to distribute information and to encourage, in so far as possible, those desiring to engage in agriculture to investigate conditions in this state before deciding upon a permanent location. We feel that the state has been well repaid for the small expense of this work, as a large proportion of the men sent out proved entirely satisfactory to their employers and have remained permanently with them.

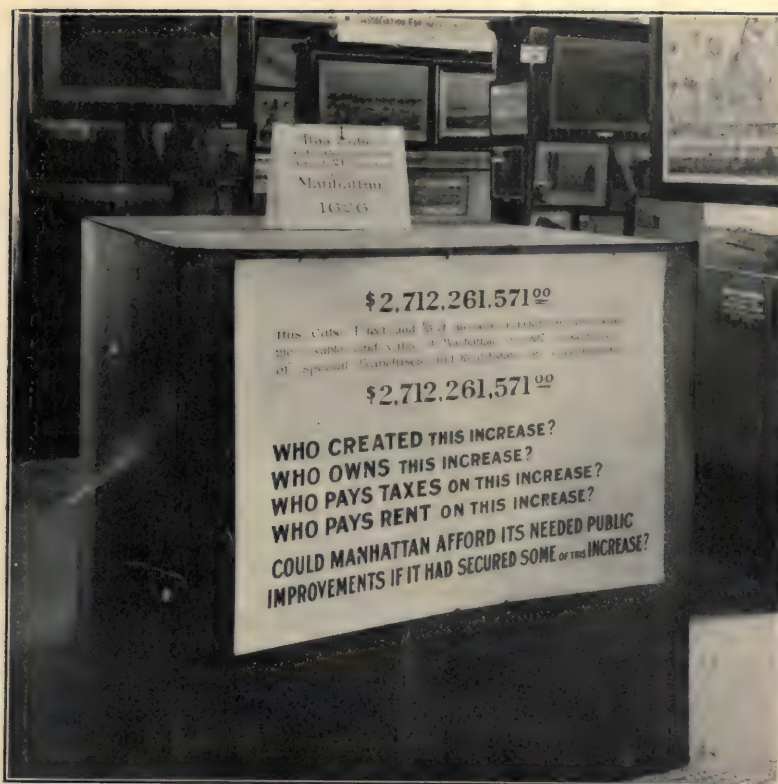
At present the applicants are more numerous than the positions offered or the ability of the bureau to take care of. During the last month seventy-five families, ranging in numbers from man and wife to families with seven to nine chil-

dren, and several hundred single men, have found good homes through our efforts in this state, covering almost every county.

The newspapers have been of great assistance in giving publicity to the work. They have given their readers a knowledge of the work being done by the department, which has led them to apply for help. Through the granges of the state, of which there are nearly eight hundred, we have disseminated information of this work and have urged them to assist the department; not only for their own benefit, but as a means of showing their interest in the good work of assisting the unfortunate to secure homes where their families could be raised free from the contamination of the city and where they would become self-supporting and self-respecting citizens of the state. We find that the farmers are generally skeptical in regard to the ability and knowledge possessed by the man who has dwelt for a time in the city, and it has been a source of regret to us that we could not secure the farmers' co-operation more generally in the work. There are vacant farm houses and tenements in all parts of the state. The land is not extensively cultivated, and we believe there are opportunities for more than 2,000,000 people to find profitable employment in addition to those already engaged in agriculture in this state. The soil is not exhausted, and where it has been somewhat worn, intelligent cultivation following the lines indicated by the state college and the experiment station, soon brings it back to its original fertility.

Our work has been hampered by the abuses practiced by unscrupulous persons upon the immigrant. They induce him to send his earnings back to his former home in the old country in order that they may secure a commission for transmitting the same. Yet we are aware of many cases where these so-called bankers have not transmitted these amounts but appropriated them.

In many of the papers printed in foreign languages, advertisements appear daily and weekly arousing suspicion of American institutions, advising their



1626—MANHATTAN ISLAND—1907.

The large cube represents the taxable land value in 1907. The little white speck perched atop the holder and showing against the pictures at the rear, represents, in scale, the \$24.00 paid for the whole island in 1626.

readers that their money is unsafe if deposited in other than the advertiser's establishments and stimulating and offering them inducements of all kinds. In this way they have induced people to send abroad nearly \$300,000,000 per year for several years, which has been a severe drain upon this country, and has been caused largely by the lack of power to execute the laws of the state enacted to prevent such abuses.

The commissioner general of immigration reported that in the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1905, 315,000 immigrants took up their residence in this state for the time being at least; in 1906, 374,000 and 386,000 in 1907, making a total of 1,075,000 people in three years. It is an almost incomprehensible statement. Many of these people have un-

doubtedly drifted to other sections of the country while others have come from other states to take their places. We find the majority of this vast order of people packed, segregated, amassed in colonies, speaking their own language as in a foreign city, in various sections of this great city.

The commissioner general of immigration has been for years vainly calling upon the states to take up the work of assisting in furnishing information that would lead to a better distribution of the immigrants. In the main, his appeal has been disregarded. The only work the great state of New York, outside of the work of the Board of Charities, has done to protect herself against this great invasion, is what the Department of Agriculture has been doing for three years

along the lines of agricultural distribution. It is better, even at state expense, to remove a great number of these people from the sections in which they reside, to sections of the state where their services are needed, out from the hot-beds where the growth of false ideas of public freedom are propagated—the breeding grounds of depravity, of socialism and anarchy. It is better to educate these people to better conditions at state expense by placing in their hands upon their arrival, the results of investigations that will show them in what parts of the state their services are needed, and where conditions for their residence will be most desirable.

The department has prepared for the continuation of this work in the future along somewhat broader lines. We have prepared a stereopticon exhibit of farm scenes and activities, and a lecture giving the various agricultural occupations and opportunities of the state.

The success of the experiment tried last year in sending out some thirty boys

from the Boys' High School in Brooklyn has resulted in a teachers' organization and the enrollment of some 2,500 high school boys in Greater New York who desire to go into the country and engage in farm work during the coming summer. We feel sure that this is an important advance in educating the city boy to the possibilities of country life and, on the other hand, it has come to our knowledge that it has educated the country boy to a better knowledge of his opportunities and good fortune in having a home in the country. The avidity with which the Cornell nature study leaflets were called for by the boys and girls of city schools, shows a great desire for a knowledge of nature and more material should be provided along those lines for their use.

So far as the law and the money available will allow, the Department of Agriculture will publish and disseminate information, and give all possible assistance within its power to promote the interests of the unfortunates by placing them upon the farms of this state.



Sixty thousand children in Brooklyn are in part time classes in crowded schools.
Picture by the Public Education Association.



Aims of a Boys' Club¹

Major Sidney S. Peixotto, N. G. C.

Headworker of the Columbia Park Boys Club of San Francisco

The Summer Walking Party--Fifth Paper

The summer walking trips, which I have organized and elaborated during the last twelve years, are, perhaps, the most original and fascinating part of my boys' club program. Like all the work which I have been associated with, these walking trips have gradually grown from small beginnings to the splendidly organized and successful trips of the present time.

I have already spoken of the necessity of beginning these trips in a small way, and in this present paper I shall describe the trip of the summer of 1905 in detail, so as to give some idea of the forceful influences which must pervade such an organization. I have always been a great believer in proper equipment, so in

our summer trips, I have been liberal in that particular. Each boy who goes upon this trip, is provided, without cost, with a cap and a hat, a worsted sweater of the best quality, overalls of brown duck, leggins, two black alpaca shirts and bathing trunks. I superintend the selection of shoes so that this most important part of the outfit is well supplied. Each boy brings extra underclothes and the few necessities for traveling, and these are all placed in a heavy flour sack which makes a comfortable pillow when tied up.

It is absolutely necessary in handling boys to have them always looking clean and an outfit of this kind is not only comfortable and conducive to good health, but it is a great influence towards making the members of the party live

¹Previous installments of Major Peixotto's story appeared in the issues of October 5, 19, November 2, 1907, and January 4, 1908.

up to what this uniform stands for, when they are staying in the cities along the route of our long tour.

Each boy brings his blankets from home, sewed up on three sides to make a cosy, warm "sleeping bag," for the nights are all spent in the open air. The rainless California summers are especially adapted to outdoor sleeping, but often on the coast, when the fog drifts in heavily, we sleep in the halls where we have given the evening's performance or perhaps in some friendly farmer's hay loft.

Last summer's trip was to extend over a period of seven weeks, the length of the San Francisco school vacation, and was to lead us through the beautiful country, first through the Santa Rosa Valley and then over the Humboldt Mountains to the city of Eureka, and then, retracing our steps, though over a different route, we were to walk along the wild and intensely picturesque ocean shore of the California coast. With the idea of giving the members of the party some beneficial outings and rest when we reached the more beautiful parts of our trip, I took the train to the first place where we were to give our theatrical performance, thus saving three days of the walking trip.

The camp, like all our club energies, depends for its success upon the manner of its organization. The older boys who have been members of former summer trips form the bulwarks of the organization, and associated with them are the younger boys who are perhaps making their first journey and learning to enjoy this difficult life. The camp rises on walking days at five o'clock. The blankets and other paraphernalia are immediately packed upon the two wagons which accompany the party, and by six o'clock we make our first step forward towards our intended goal. It is generally eight or nine miles away and these are covered before breakfast.

It has always been a great question in camp whether it is better to walk before breakfast or not, but the general consensus of opinion amongst old camp members is that it is far preferable to cover the eight or nine miles in the early

morning, and so get rid of this large part of the walking day while the morning air is fresh and while the body is most willing.

Around eight o'clock we begin to look for a breakfast place. When this is found near water and wood, the wagon is again unpacked, and here the camp will rest perhaps two hours while the breakfast is being cooked. It is during a stop of this kind that the organization of the camp is best described.

When the wagons arrive at the selected place four boys jump upon the wheels, untie the long ropes that hold the pack tight and begin to throw off the blankets and pillows so that the cooks can reach the food in the boxes below. Five boys, who are called the blanket-layers, take the large white canvas covers and spread them upon the ground where the camp is to sleep, and then, as each bag and blanket is numbered, they lay them carefully in the order of their numbers, thus furnishing the bedroom of the camp. Four other boys have gone into the woods or are hunting along the roads for wood to build the fire. Four other boys have taken large buckets that hang under the wagon and have gone to the well or the running stream for the water with which to cook. Four other boys have been rummaging in the grub boxes getting the provisions for the meals, which they will later put upon the fire and of which they will superintend the cooking. One boy lights the fire and attends to it during the entire cooking time, seeing that it is kept even and well supplied with wood, while four other boys have gotten the axes and hatchets and are engaged in cutting up the large pieces of wood so that they can be used by the fireman. This is the method of establishing of the camp.

After all have eaten, another set of five boys begin to clean up the pots and kettles and then the packers again place the pack on the wagon and we are off on the further progress of our journey. By eleven o'clock, under this method, we have cleared perhaps twelve miles. From eleven o'clock until four the boys have a glorious rest. The noonday stop is often made by the shade of some large

group of trees and always, if possible, by the side of a bathing pool. After a glorious swim many of the boys stretch themselves out under these trees and indulge in a noonday *siesta*, while others take the baseball outfit and the other games which are included in our pack, and spend a happy four hours in the open air.

At four o'clock the walk is again resumed and we make from six to eight miles to complete the day's trip. The evening meal is generally ready at seven o'clock. The walking is arranged for alternate days. We aim to reach a town each day we walk, and on the next day a rest is taken in the camping place near this city or town. There is not a constant onward rush and the boys have this change in life continually.

As we give evening performances, it would be quite impossible for the boys to walk and perform on the same day. On the days we rest in the towns, the boys indulge in a morning and afternoon swim, and as a rule have a baseball game to play with the ambitious youth of the city in which we are staying. Many receptions are given to the boys. They are driven about by interested friends to see the various places of interest; so, after all, walking is not the predominant part of this outdoor excursion.

In the last few years our evening entertainments have become such an important part of the summer trip, that I would consider it necessary to give an elaborate description of this side of camp life. Arrangements have been made months ahead for our appearance in these cities, and the performance is generally under the auspices of some social organization of standing in the community. It is, therefore, necessary throughout the entire trip for us to keep our "dates." We cannot lose one day in the prearranged itinerary, and it is a proud record of this outdoor party that it has never missed a date in its entire experience throughout these four glorious summers.

A glance through the various acts of an evening's performance shows that our public evening is really an elaborate illustration of the fine all-round training of the boys of the Columbia Park Boys' Club. There is nothing in the entire



A SOLOIST.

evening's performance but what is spontaneous and natural and everything given is original, most of the acts being my own creation and especially suited to the work of the individual boy as it has developed during his club life.

The preparation for this evening takes up very little extra time. I am opposed to long rehearsals. All the work that the boys do is naturally and spontaneously expressed. We have no awkward boys. We have no boys with stage mannerisms. The whole evening is a jolly, well-balanced and unstudied performance. We begin to improve conditions in this performance after the first night of our trip. During the day, perhaps, suggestions are offered which might elaborate or shorten the different acts, and these are put into effect the second night and so, gradually, the performance assumes a complete and thoroughly well-balanced aspect. I can say most emphatically that these theatre evenings rarely make up any particular part of the daily conversation of the boys. They often laugh over stage "breaks" of the night before. They often joke about the audiences they have faced. They

look upon their theatre evenings as just the finest fun that was ever instituted for the pleasure of boys. They think a great deal more of the baseball games they are to play, of the daily life of the camp, of the food they are to get for breakfast or dinner, of the scenery through which they are passing daily and of the swimming place they are coming to to-morrow, and after they have given thirty of these performances, they are pretty well worn out with the tedium of dressing

cities we have to give a second evening's performance, which is generally an old-time minstrel show, and besides, these boys are famous for their very beautiful singing of classical music. These concerts are given at churches or hotels or at receptions, to which the boys are invited.

Besides this entertaining ability, we had a marching street band consisting of twenty-four members which added greatly to the attractiveness of the party,



OFF FOR A SEVENTEEN MILE TRAMP.

and redressing and the inconveniences that are found along every circuit where country halls exist. I think that the best way to make a boy never want to be an actor is to give him a taste of this hard and exacting life when young.

The gain in character from these performances is tremendous, and the boy who has an opportunity to naturally face an audience at the age of ten or twelve is marvellously helped by such an experience. When we stay in the larger

especially in the smaller cities and towns. It was a talented party of boys, this group of thirty-six children, who had all learned their lessons so well in the atmosphere of our vigorous work. I can conceive of no greater benefit to boys who live as a rule in poorly ventilated city houses as such an experience as I have been able to give these children. I have seen boys who have constantly been in charge of doctors, in one summer's experience lose all their infirmity

and come back so greatly improved in health as never again to need medical aid. Boys grow wonderfully under such a life and it is a common experience for many to bring home children who have grown from three to four inches as the result of their summer outdoors.

By far the greatest results of these summer trips come from the daily experiences of this interesting life. Boys rarely learn much from books and they learn less from talks, but throw them into a vivid life experience and the lessons become life-long. The experiences of such a nomadic life cannot easily be imagined. The very fact that here are forty-two people who have to live the highest type of a family life; rise together in the morning; endure the hardships of the daily camp life; learn to attend to their various duties with promptness and willingness though their legs be weary; train themselves to like unpleasant foods; and put up with all kinds of rude conditions, insures the inculcation of lessons that are hard indeed to be learned unless they are life experiences. Under the conditions in which the boys find themselves, it becomes an absolute necessity to conform willingly and cheerfully to the every-day routine of such a life, and under my constant guidance and persuasive eloquence to each individual, as his troubles appear, the effect is vital and lasting.

Of course, as in every work, however well conducted, there have been bitter disappointments, but on the whole these walking trips have been most beneficial to the boys by furnishing this vigorous insight into the conditions that make life successful and which bring order out of disorder.

The food question in a summer camp with boys is always, and it always will be, the most difficult part of the life, because as a rule boys have intense likes and dislikes arising from the daily dietary laws laid down in their mothers' kitchens, and it is a difficult task to make all boys think alike regarding the camp cuisine. I have found that it can be done and that it is the great victory of camp

life that makes the boys all eat heartily of the plain, but substantial food that must be provided on a walking trip.

Another great feature of the walking trips is the excellent lesson which we are able to give the small cities and towns of our state. Everybody looks upon the Columbia Park Club boys as a type of the gentlemanly, well-ordered child. The boys are most earnestly spoken to about this necessary part of their behavior while they are on the journey. The boys are welcomed to elaborate dinners provided by local societies, because of their superior conduct and naturally many boys who have never dreamed of such necessities, learn through the help of older boys or of myself, the correct table attitude and the necessity of living up to rules of good manners.

The boys meet all sorts and conditions of people. Men and women wander into the camp, talk kindly with the boys and this in itself is a great educator and a great influence. I would say, however, that the greatest help these boys get is that which comes from hard, laborious work. I personally believe that boys must be taught when young the pleasures of work, and live such a life as a walking trip lays out for them. The boys gain that positive knowledge that hard work has its infinite rewards. Some of them start out woefully helpless and seemingly impossible subjects for this life, but about them all are tried and true members of former trips, who laugh at the novices' complaints, and who tell them that their present woes are only forerunners of greater ones. This example on the part of the older boys is, as a rule, the greatest means of arousing a sense of pride and desire on the part of these very tired members of the party to be regarded as sturdy and enduring "veterans."

Personally, I have more than excellent opportunities of spending happy and unhappy hours with my boys in the course of such a life. I walk alongside those with whom I have personal work. I discuss the reasons for their unhappinesses or the causes of their quarrels with other boys or I reason with them as to their complaints about the camp

life. And the moral effect of this whole life is the finest influence that I have ever seen exercised. Among the older club members, the memory of their many summers, traversing the beautiful valleys and winding over the difficult mountain roads or walking along the summer sea; the fascinating memories of the quaint

halls in which we have given our performances under trying conditions; the comical experiences that make the life of the camp so attractive; all these and many more give a touch of romance to their young lives that will hang about them and be a part of them until their lives are ended.



Social Forces

By the Editor

FIT OPPORTUNITY IN INFINITE VARIETY

Thus felicitously, in an address at the Harvard Social Museum, President Eliot phrases a working ideal of social progress. Equality we have not and cannot have. We are not born equal and we do not tend to become so. Idealists who have reluctantly come to realize the falsity of the doctrine of equality have taken refuge in the position that if we cannot expect equality of condition we can at least strive for equal opportunity for all. The most stirring of modern appeals have been those for a nearer approach to equality of opportunity among men. President Eliot now pitilessly dissects this ideal and finds it as untenable as the cruder doctrine of the eighteenth century. We can no more secure equality of opportunity than we can secure equality of capacity or equality of condition. He goes indeed one step further, in courageous contempt for current enthusiasms, and declares not only that equality of opportunity is unattainable, but that we ought not to desire it. What we ought to desire instead is for each the fit opportunity and since men are of infinite variety we should seek, as our social ideal, fit opportunity in infinite variety. Increased mobility for the individual, greater ease in passing from one class and another, is desirable in order that each may seek and find his natural place in the social structure, but the structure itself demands administrators and directors of affairs, skilled manipulators of mechanical forces and material things, a trading and commercial class, and underneath all these manual labor, which is no less necessary because it requires little of the higher types of intelligence which are essential in commerce, in the skilled trades and professions, and in the direction of industries.

Let us apply this new doctrine, that fit opportunity in infinite variety is to be our goal, to certain current questions which are just now occupying the attention of courts and legislatures. Not in a century has there been so great necessity of turning to a thoughtful and unimpassioned consideration of the most elementary principles underlying our social relations. Among the questions with which the nation is attempting just now to deal are the right of contract and its limitations, and the right to combine in restraint of trade and its limitations, involving railways and manufacturing establishments on the one hand and the boycott, strike, the labor union itself, and agricultural societies on the other. These live political issues involve ultimately the question of personal liberty. To what extent shall the individual member of society be left free to buy, manufacture or sell, with or without an understanding with others? On what grounds

shall the freedom of contract be impaired? It must be confessed that the old-fashioned advocate of unrestrained individual liberty, who has gone to cover, would even yet have an easier time theoretically in answering these questions than any of the various philosophers who seek to tell us just where to stop after the principle of complete freedom of contract has been abandoned. An anti-trust law is passed under which the protagonist of the trusts begins proceedings to dissolve the Federation of Labor. Could anything be more grotesque—or more logical? We cannot have one set of laws, we are assured, for the rich and another for the poor. We cannot check big combinations in restraint of the so-called monopolies, and ignore combinations among grape growers or dairymen to raise the prices of their products. To be sure we cannot, if we proceed upon the old lines of assuming equality among men, or if our theory be equality of opportunity. But what if we accept President Eliot's principle and open our eyes to the fundamental fallacy of the theory on which such laws and interpretation of laws depend? It is not equality that we seek; but fit opportunity. Let the courts proceed on this principle and they would cease to protect the right of labor to make a contract, destructive of health, the right of women to work excessive hours and under injurious conditions, the right of monopolists to raise unduly the prices of commodities which are necessities of life. The new principle should be subjected to critical scrutiny. If it is found to be sound, if it will work, if, as the pragmatist would say, it can be cashed in, then it should not be used negatively but positively and constructively. Legislators and courts, no less than agitators and reformers, should seek to apply it to practical questions.

Does a proposed measure increase variety of opportunity, help the individual of the lower industrial classes to rise to the higher, lessen the waste which results from the denial of fit opportunity? If so let us favor it. Does a given court decision operate in the contrary direction? Does it deprive some individual or class of opportunities which they should have? Does it lessen fit opportunity? Does it discourage the tendency to develop naturally and fully the special powers and possibilities of individuals? Then let us reverse it, at whatever cost, whether it require constitutional changes or merely the education of judges. If it be objected that courts cannot be entrusted with such delicate questions, it is only to be replied that they are now daily dealing with them. The difficulty is that they are dealing with them in many instances unjustly and disastrously because they ignore the effect of their decisions on social conditions.

If it were accepted as a fundamental principle that the object of our legislation and jurisprudence is to multiply fit opportunity and to increase its variety, we might avoid many of the pitfalls of essential injustice and political helplessness into which we are continually brought by the false assumption of equality. Of course it would be dangerous. Corruption and class prejudice would delight in the new chances which such a doctrine would give them. All progress is dangerous and we can trust neither court nor legislature with power for good unless they command our confidence that they are not disposed to use that power for evil.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

THE NEW INFIRMARY FOR COOK COUNTY

The people of Chicago and its vicinity voted at the election on April 7, on a bond issue of \$2,000,000 for a new county infirmary. The authorization of this bond issue, and the erection of the new infirmary in accordance with the plans broadly outlined by the Cook county commissioners and the special co-operating committee of citizens, not only open a new era in the humane care of the aged and infirm in Cook county, but mark the successful culmination of the movement for the separation of the poor and the insane, the state to care for the latter. This arrangement, despite the cost of the new infirmary, will actually result in a large saving to the taxpayers of Cook county.

Six years ago the county board and citizens interested in its work, recommended, in view of the overcrowded condition of the infirmary at Dunning and the dilapidation into which the old buildings had fallen, that the institution be moved to some location outside the city where it would be separate from the insane hospital. After many years of agitation, the state of Illinois in 1907 passed a bill authorizing the state authorities to assume the care of all the insane who at that time were confined in county institutions. This opened the way for Cook county to carry through the plans so long contemplated.

A site of 255 acres near Blue Island has already been purchased for \$33,624. As soon as the new county infirmary is completed and equipped, the state will probably be in a position to take charge of the insane hospital at Dunning. That there should be no delay in making this

change is evident from the report of engineers who declare that the old infirmary buildings at Dunning are in exceedingly bad condition, with deplorable sanitation, and a fire risk so great that there would be an appalling loss of life if a fire should gain any headway. Moreover, the buildings are very much crowded. When erected twenty-six years ago they accommodated 641, and had a capacity of 1,000; to-day they house 1,574 inmates.

Part of the \$2,000,000 will be expended in a new and enlarged hospital for consumptives. The building for this purpose at Dunning, erected two years ago, already is taxed to its capacity, and a new hospital where the environment will be better and where it will be possible to introduce improved methods and facilities, will greatly add to the comfort of the county's consumptive wards, most of whom are in the last stages of the disease.

So far as the saving in expense is concerned, the county commission balances the cost of the new infirmary against the amount which will be saved to the county when it no longer has to maintain the insane hospital.

In ten years the county will save \$3,000,000 in the cost of maintaining the insane asylum, to say nothing of the increase in expenses during that time. At the end of twenty years, when the last bond has been retired, the county will have paid out \$2,840,000 in principal and interest. All the Dunning institutions are maintained at present out of the same appropriation, and the maintenance of the hospital for the insane, as a separate institution costs about \$300,000. Last year the Dunning institutions cost Cook county \$433,433.71. This is the net cash cost of maintenance. It does not include repairs, insurance or depreciation. As nearly as the cost of maintaining the hospital for insane

in 1907 can be ascertained, it was \$263,860. This amount in cash was expended for maintenance. The actual annual cost of the institution is considerably more than this and the expense is increasing year by year.

In its campaign pamphlet urging the voters to approve the bond issue, the commission pointed out that the buildings will be arranged in groups which will be occupied by inmates, who will be classified on the basis of their mental and moral condition. Each group will consist of comparatively small buildings containing separate sleeping rooms and day rooms. In the old building the dormitories are the day rooms.

The novel feature of one or more of the dormitories will be the provision for housing married couples. The plans, also, provide for a home for convalescents where patients leaving the county hospital, too weak to work and without means of support, may go for a few weeks until they can regain their strength. Buildings containing kitchen, dining-room and administration offices, connected with the other groups by covered walks, will be provided. The power and heating plant, homes for superintendents and nurses, chapel and other buildings will be at some distance and disconnected from the other buildings.

THE ENGLISH CHILDREN'S BILL

In February there came up for a first reading in the English House of Commons, a measure which aims "to consolidate and amend the law relating to the protection of children and young persons, reformatory and industrial schools and juvenile offenders, and otherwise to amend the law with respect to children and young persons."

This comprehensive measure, called the children's bill, containing 119 clauses, and consolidating twenty-two statutes and parts of many others, will serve the very useful purpose of codifying practically all the laws of the United Kingdom relating to children. A bill of this scope was, however, not expected to pass into a law without having the favor of all sections of the House, and for this reason the government excluded such subjects

as could be considered controversial in their character, such as the question of children in public houses; the question of the employment of children, whether in factories or elsewhere; and the question of education. This bill extends to the whole of the United Kingdom. It defines a child as a person under the age of fourteen and a young person as a person above the age of fourteen and under the age of sixteen.

The first part embodies the infant life protection act of 1897 which was passed to stop the evils of baby farming and to protect the lives of infants put out to nurse. This act of 1897 exempted from inspection those persons who received one nursed child and not more than one in consideration of periodical payments. A select committee has been appointed to inquire and report as to the desirability of extending the infant life protection act to such homes.

The second part of the bill re-enacts the prevention of cruelty to children act of 1894 with a large number of amendments mainly designed to strengthen the law. It also contains two new provisions, one, to prevent the waste of infant life due to overlying through which every year some 1600 infants meet their death in the United Kingdom. The bill proposes in such cases, where there is no evidence of wilful cruelty but of serious negligence, to make the penalty a light one except where drunkenness can be proved. It also proposes to impose a similar penalty upon parents or guardians who do not take reasonable precautions in guarding their children from burns and scalds owing to their being left in homes with unguarded fires.

The third part deals with juvenile smoking, against which England has so far not legislated. The committee on physical deterioration, as well as a committee of the House of Lords, has recommended a legislative remedy which commands universal support.

The fourth part of the bill consolidates nineteen statutes which contain the English law relating to reformatory and industrial schools. One of the most important changes proposed is that of raising the age for committal to a reformatory.

tory above the present age of sixteen. To avoid mixing the older offender with the small boy and girl, a new class of reformatory for the former was urged. This part of the bill also provides that where a home is kept for destitute children and supported by charitable contributions, there should be right of entry to persons authorized by the secretary of state.

The fifth part of the bill which has to do with juvenile offenders and juvenile courts, is based upon three distinct principles. The first is, that the child offender ought to be kept separate from the adult criminal, and it urges the establishment throughout the country of juvenile courts where the public that is not concerned with the case in hand is excluded from the hearings. It also requires that places of detention be established throughout the country to which children could be committed for trial or on remand if they are not bailed out.

The second principle of the bill is that the parents of the offender must be made to feel more responsible for the wrongdoing of the child, and it requires the attendance in court of parents in all cases where a child is charged with the offense.

The third principle expressed the judgment of the community that commitment of children to jail, no matter what the offense might be, was an unsuitable penalty which created a criminal class and robbed society of the powerful deterrent of that dread of the unknown penalty of imprisonment.

This comprehensive code of children's laws is quite worthy of the attention of the legislators for children and social workers on both sides of the Atlantic.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND THE CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH

Within a short time the Presbyterian and the Methodist churches have voiced their interest in progressive social work and have made some progress toward a better understanding of the church as a social force. Now the Congregational churches of New England have taken a similar step. In March the first meeting of the New England Congre-

gational Congress in Plymouth Church, Worcester, drew lay and pulpit delegates from a large proportion of the churches of the six states. It may be regarded as the point of embarkation upon a new policy. The efforts of the individual church of that denomination have never been able to overcome the individualism which has stood in the way of some form of organic union, but the readjustments which are needed to cope with the country, downtown and suburban churches, and the immigration and labor problems which individual churches cannot solve to advantage, may be able to bring this union about.

Rev. Ozora S. Davis of New Britain, Connecticut, whose experience in a large city church gave strength to his critical analysis, arraigned in temperate but telling language the Congregational churches for their apathy in not joining hands with trade unionists, for their inclination to thrust immigrants into "stuffy chapels" instead of welcoming them into the attractive edifices, and for their lack of statesmanship in satisfying all the religious needs of city and country. He pointed out that the individual church must begin to think of itself in relation to all others and to the larger questions for whose discussion they had come together. Other speakers of the evening emphasized separate portions of his paper. One instanced the sale of a downtown church whose congregation had been crowded out by large numbers of foreigners, the proceeds being sent across the sea to carry on foreign missions. Another asked that consideration be given the needs of the country churches, which had formerly sent and which are still sending many of their ambitious sons and daughters to the cities where larger financial returns await them. Still a third called attention to the lack of co-operation between the church and trade unions by the failure to support in any marked degree that ethical movement in Massachusetts which demands for all employes one rest day in seven, preferably Sunday. A permanent commission of twelve has been created, two from each of the New England states to report a plan of action at the next meeting in Manchester in February, 1909.

THE CONFERENCE AT RICHMOND

With the National Conference of Charities and Correction less than a month away, the program for the week's sessions is practically complete. The program for the morning sectional meetings is subject to change, both regarding numbers of meetings and dates. The different committees will settle these points in Richmond. Detailed programs will be ready for distribution about May 1.

Arrangement for special railroad rates are pending and the Chesapeake and Ohio and the Norfolk and Western have already offered a fare at a third of the present rate on the open excursion plan. For example, the round trip from Cincinnati to Richmond will be \$18.25.

The entertainment committee has provided for an excursion down the James river to Westover on May 9. Westover is an historic mansion of Colonial times, which was the home of Colonel William Byrd, the founder of the city of Richmond. In the park surrounding the house a lunch will be served and the return trip will be made in ample time for evening dinner and the session of the conference. Tickets for the excursion, which is free to all members, will be in the hands of the general secretary on Tuesday, May 5. They can be obtained by the members from the registration clerk.

The program follows:

WEDNESDAY, MAY 6, 8 P. M.

Opening meeting: Addresses by Governor Swanson, Mayor McCarthy, Chairman R. A. Lancaster, Jr.

President Mulry's address.

THURSDAY, MAY 7, 10 A. M.

Section Meetings.

Committee on Children.

Topic. The Educational Principle in all Child Saving Work, President Alderman of the University of Virginia.

Committee on Needy Families: Their Homes and Neighborhoods. Mrs. John M. Glenn, Baltimore, Md.

How Can We Raise Our Standard of Efficiency in Dealing with Needy Families? Francis H. McLean, field secretary for the extension of organized charity.

Committee on Criminals: Their Punishment and Reformation. W. H. Whittaker, superintendent Indiana Reformatory, Jeffersonville, chairman.

Reformatory Discipline and Industries, J. A. Leonard, superintendent of State Reformatory, Mansfield, O.

Committee on Public Health. Walter Lindley, M. D., LL. D., director of the California Hospital, editor of the *Southern California Practitioner*, Los Angeles, Cal., chairman.

Topic. Tuberculosis, The Consumptive Negro, Charles R. Grandy, M. D., Norfolk, Va.; A National Sanatorium for the Tuberculous, Frank J. Bruno, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Evening General Session, 8 P. M., in charge of Committee on Needy Families.

The Church and the Home. Speakers, Father Kirby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.; Miss Alice Higgins, secretary of Associated Charities, Boston.

FRIDAY, MAY 8, SECTION MEETINGS.

Committee on Children.

Topic. Juvenile Courts and Probation as Part of the School Plant of the Country. Speakers, Judge Julian W. Mack, Chicago, Ill.

Committee on Needy Families.

Topic. The Limitations of Charity in Dealing with Unemployment, Porter R. Lee, assistant secretary Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.

Committee on Criminals.

Topic. Discipline and Employment of United States Prisoners. Speaker, Deputy Warden C. C. McClaughry of the United States Prison, Atlanta, Ga.

Committee on Public Health.

Topic. The Housing Question. Speakers expected, Miss Harriet Fulmer, superintendent of Visiting Nursing Association, Chicago; W. H. Allen, secretary Bureau of Municipal Research, New York city.

SPECIAL SESSION, 11 A. M.

Committee on Statistics. John Koren, special agent United States Census Bureau, Boston.

Report of the committee by the chairman. Use and Misuse of Statistics in Social Work, Miss Kate Holladay Claghorn, of the Tenement House Department, New York city; Old Age Pensions, Frederick L. Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance Company of America, Newark, N. J.

AFTERNOON RECEPTION AT THE EXECUTIVE MANSION.

Evening General Session, 8 P. M., in charge of Committee on Criminals.

Report of the Committee on Punishment and Reformation by the chairman. A discussion will follow led by A. S. Baker, superintendent of the Concord Reformatory, Mass., and O. E. Darnall, superintendent of the Boys' Reform School in the District of Columbia.

SATURDAY, MAY 9.

Excursion on the James river to Westover and return (9.30 A. M. to 4 P. M.). Lunch at Westover.

Evening General Session, 8 p. m., in charge of Committee on Public Health.

Report of the committee by the chairman. The Importance of Pure Foods and Drugs in Relation to Public Health, Dr. H. W. Wiley, chief chemist, United States Agriculture Bureau of Chemistry, Washington, D. C.; The Negro's Outlook for Health, Rev. Beverly Warner, D. D., rector of Trinity Church, New Orleans.

SUNDAY, MAY 10.

The conference sermon, 3 p. m.

Committee on Children. Miss Frances Greeley Curtis, member Massachusetts State Board of Charities, chairman.

Child Labor and Compulsory Education. Speakers, Edgar Gardner Murphy of Montgomery, Ala.; Miss Jean Gordon, factory inspector, New Orleans; Rev. A. J. McKelway, Atlanta; Prof. W. H. Hand, University of North Carolina, Columbia, N. C.

MONDAY, MAY 11, SECTION MEETINGS.

Committee on Children.

Topic. Institutions: How Do They Prepare Future Citizens and Parents? Speakers, Thomas M. Osborne, Freeville, N. Y.; Mrs. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent House of Refuge for Girls, Philadelphia.

Committee on Needy Families.

Topic. Social Work in Isolated Mountain Communities, Miss Pettit, head resident W. C. T. U. Settlement, Hindman, Ky.

Committee on Criminals. After Care of Inmates of Prisons.

Committee on Public Health.

Topic. The Social Work Conducted at the Massachusetts General Hospital, James Minnick, general manager of the Society for Organizing Charity, Providence, R. I.

The members interested in the care of the insane will visit the State Hospital at Petersburg, Va. Lunch will be served, and a meeting for discussion will be held in the hospital assembly hall.

SPECIAL MORNING SESSION, 11 A. M.

Publicity.

Evening General Session, 8 p. m.

Topic. Heredity, by the chairman; The Modern Institution for the Insane in its Departments, followed by a general discussion.

TUESDAY, MAY 12, 10 A. M.

Section Meetings.

Committee on Children.

Topic. Family Homes: Are They Preparatory Schools Also? Speakers, Rev. Francis A. Foy, East Nutley, N. J.; Charles W. Birtwell, Children's Aid Society, Boston.

Committee on Needy Families.

Topic. Rural Development in Relation to Social Welfare, Prof. L. H. Bailey, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Committee on Criminals.

Roadbuilding by Inmates of State Prisons, R. W. Withers, member of the Virginia Legislature.

Committee on State Supervision.

Rutherford H. Platt, member Ohio State Board of Charities.

Topic. Experiences in Inspection. Speakers, Alexander Johnson, ex-secretary of Board of State Charities of Indiana; Mor-nay Williams, president of the Juvenile Asylum and Children's Village, New York.

Committee on Statistics.

Discussion on Social Statistics.

Trip to Loretta and session at the School for the Feeble Minded.

Evening General Session, 8 p. m.

Committee on State Supervision.

Report of the committee by the chairman. Results of the Work of a State Board, Amos W. Butler, secretary of the Indiana Board of State Charities; The Value and Need of State Supervision for both Public and Private Charities, Mrs. Kate Waller Barrett, Alexandria, Va.; Shaping the Destinies of a New State, Miss Kate Barnard, commissioner of charities and corrections, Oklahoma.

WEDNESDAY, MAY 13, 10 A. M.

Section Meetings.

Committee on Children.

Topic. The Larger Uses of the Public Schools, Jane Addams, Chicago.

Committee on Criminals.

Topic. The Discipline and Training of Woman in Woman's Prisons and Industrial Schools for Girls. Speakers, Miss Sarah E. Montgomery, superintendent Girls Industrial School of Indiana and Mrs. Alice E. Curtin, superintendent House of Refuge for Women, Albion, N. Y.

Committee on State Supervision.

Topic. Migration of Dependents and Defectives, and Importance of Interstate Comity and Co-operation. Speakers, H. H. Shirer, secretary of the Ohio Board of State Charities; George S. Wilson, secretary of Board of State Charities of the District of Columbia; Judge Robinson, member State Board of Control of Iowa.

Committee on Insane and Epileptic.

Discussion on Heredity and Environment.

Evening General Session, 8 p. m.

Committee on Defectives in charge.

The Needs of the South with Regard to the Feeble-Minded, by the chairman; Practical Provision for the Feeble-Minded, E. R. Johnstone, superintendent of New Jersey Institution for the Feeble-Minded, Vineland, N. J.

Cheap Amusements

John Collier

For four months a joint-committee of the Woman's Municipal League and the People's Institute has been engaged in an investigation of the cheap amusements of Manhattan Island. The committee has been composed as follows: Michael M. Davis, Jr., secretary of the People's In-

stitute, chairman; Mrs. Josephine Redding, secretary of the Woman's Municipal League, secretary; Mrs. R. H. McKelvey, Miss Henrietta B. Rodman, Miss Alice Lewisohn, Mrs. F. R. Swift, Michael H. Cardoza, Charles H. Ayres, Jr., John Collier, and W. Frank Persons. The investigation has been made financially possible through the Spuyten Duyvil branch of the Woman's Municipal League. The writer has acted as field investigator.

Attempt has been made to cover all phases of the cheap amusement problem, excluding from the detailed investigation dance-halls and skating-rinks on the one hand and high-priced theaters on the other. Legal and business aspects have been studied as well as educational and sanitary. The subject-matter has been fourfold: melodrama, vaudeville and burlesque; nickelodeons, or moving picture variety shows; penny arcades; and miscellany. The miscellany are anatomical museums, fake beauty-shows, etc., which are confined to a limited area of the city where they maintain a difficult existence. They can be passed over in the present brief report. What follows sums up the results of the investigation.

The whole topography of the cheap-amusement problem has changed within the last six years. To illustrate: the old-time crass melodrama has been in large measure dethroned, crowded out by the cheap vaudeville and the nickelodeon. The cheap vaudeville has spread widely and has become a problem in itself; it plays a fairly constructive role in a few instances, and in several is about the vilest and most brutalizing form of entertainment in New York. Withal, it generally keeps within the bounds of the laws protecting public decency, which are largely matters of interpretation, but only through agitation, hard fighting and a constantly aroused public sentiment can it be kept within bounds. But even the cheap vaudeville has been eclipsed by the tremendously expansive nickelodeon, the number of which in Greater New York, has grown in a few years from nothing to more than six hundred. The nickelodeon is now the core of the cheap amuse-

ment problem. Considered numerically it is four times more important than all the standard theaters of the city combined. It entertains from three to four hundred thousand people daily, and between seventy-five and a hundred thousand children. And finally, the penny arcade has sprung into mushroom existence, has proved itself to be irredeemable on the educational side and without the elements of permanent growth in popular favor and has worn out its public. It is now being driven from the field by the nickelodeon.

Not only the superficial aspect, but the essential nature of the cheap amusement problem has changed—and changed for the better. Constructive elements have entered and triumphantly made good with the public, so that now the cheap-amusement situation offers an immediate opportunity and a rousing challenge to the social worker. The nickelodeon's the thing, and the story of its development is instructive.

Five years ago the nickelodeon was neither better nor worse than many other cheap amusements are at present. It was often a carnival of vulgarity, suggestiveness and violence, the fit subject for police regulation. It gained a deservedly bad name, and although no longer deserved, that name still clings to it. During the present investigation a visit to more than two hundred nickelodeons has not detected one immoral or indecent picture, or one indecent feature of any sort, much as there has been in other respects to call for improvement. But more than this: in the nickelodeon one sees history, travel, the reproduction of industries. He sees farce-comedy which at worst is relaxing, innocuous, rather monotonously confined to horseplay, and at its best is distinctly humanizing, laughing with and not at the subject. Some real drama: delightful curtain-raisers, in perfect pantomime, from France, and in the judgment of most people rather an excess of mere melodrama, and in rare cases even of sheer murderous violence. At one show or another a growing number of classic legends, like Jack and the Beanstalk or Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves, can be seen any night. The moving picture

repertoire amounts to tens of thousands, and is amazingly varied. One firm alone in the city has two million feet of "film" stored away until it can be used again as fresh material, after the public has forgotten it. In addition to the moving-picture, the nickelodeon as a rule has singing, and almost invariably the audience joins in the chorus with a good will. Thus has the moving-picture-show elevated itself. But the penny arcade has not elevated itself, and the cheap vaudeville, if anything, has grown worse.

The nickelodeon is a family theater, and is almost the creation of the child, and it has discovered a new and healthy cheap-amusement public. The penny arcade is a selfish and costly form of amusement, a penny buying only a half-minute's excitement for one person. Its shooting-gallery and similar features are likewise costly. In the short-lived pictures there is no time for the development of human interest, but the gist of a murder or of a salacious situation can be conveyed. So the penny arcade has resembled the saloon, from which the family has stayed away; and everything artificial has been mustered in to draw the floating crowd. As for the cheap theater, it has had a false tradition behind it, and managers have taken for granted that a low-priced performance could be given only by an inferior cast. So when the cheap theater has departed from the crudest melodrama it has gone over into inferior vaudeville and has depended on illegitimate methods for its success. This is the rule, although there are exceptions, and vaudeville at best has only a limited interest for the great, basic, public of the working and immigrant classes in New York.

But the nickelodeon started with a free field and a marvelous labor-saving device in the moving-picture, and it began above all as a neighborhood institution, offering an evening of the most varied interest to the entire family for a quarter. Thus the nickelodeon grew as solidly as it grew swiftly, and developed a new amusement seeking public, the public that has made the nickelodeon what it is. Right here is found the most significant aspect of the present amusement situation. All the

settlements and churches combined do not reach daily a tithe of the simple and impressionable folk that the nickelodeons reach and vitally impress every day. Here is a new social force, perhaps the beginning of a true theater of the people, and an instrument whose power can only be realized when social workers begin to use it.

The investigation led almost immediately to constructive opportunities. On the legal side, an anomalous situation was found. In no existing law, state or municipal, was penny arcade or moving picture mentioned. These theaters were grouped by construction as common shows, along with ferris wheels and bicycle carrouseles, and were put under the authority of the license bureau. But where the standard theater is regulated in the minutest detail as regards its building requirements, by written law, there is no law and no printed specification for the moving picture show, which plays with fire. The theaters are controlled by the police, in whom responsibility is centered, and who co-operate with the proper departments. But the nickelodeon is controlled by the license bureau, a clerical department, and up to ten months ago it went to all intents and purposes unsupervised. Then popular agitation and the initiative of a hard working official in the fire department, set the city's machinery at work, and a good deal has been done. The moving picture show is reasonably safe from fire now; it is not yet safe from contagious disease, and the air is often very bad.

As a first step toward adjusting the legal situation, the investigation committee framed a bill, which has been introduced by Assemblyman Samuel A. Gluck at Albany, and which has passed the Assembly by a large majority. Barring unforeseen obstacles it will pass the Senate at the present session. This bill provides for the raising of license fees on nickelodeons from \$25 to \$150 a year, for the placing of this license under the direct control of the police, along with the license for standard theaters, and for the exclusion of school children from nickelodeons during school hours and after eight o'clock at night, except when

accompanied by guardians. This bill went to Albany with the endorsement of various civic organizations, the Board of Education, and the Moving Picture Association itself which has shown every desire to co-operate in the improvement of moving picture standards.

On the side of co-operation with the moving-picture business looking toward more elevated performances, and even the improvement of the artistic and educational quality and of sanitary conditions through direct competition on a commercial basis, the opportunity is immediate and large. In this field it is probable that the drama machinery of the People's Institute will be turned to use in some co-operative plan, giving endorsement to the best of the shows and receiving in return the right to regulate their programs. Settlements on their own initiative could do valuable work in this way. The investigation committee, which is to be perpetuated as a sub-committee of the drama committee of the People's Institute, will in all probability start one or more model nickelodeons, with the object of forcing up the standard through direct competition, of proving that an unprecedentedly high class of performance can be made to pay, and perhaps, in the event of success, of founding a people's theater of the future.

Sanitation and Public Buildings¹

Reviewed by Frank C. Wight
Associate Editor Engineering News

From all our historical records, with the possible exception of those that have made immortal Methuselah and his race, we have good reason to believe that the average age of man has been steadily increasing toward that far-off three score and ten promised by the Psalmist. Within the past three centuries, during which more or less accurate data have been available, vital statistics plainly point out that a smaller proportion of the world's

inhabitants are dying each year. In our own country the decennial census reports show that during the last century the average life of the individual has progressed from about nineteen to over twenty-three years, this seemingly low figure being due to a heavy infant mortality. Among the many causes which have contributed to this decreasing death rate, the scarcity of the terrible wars that decimated the country in the early periods of history, the better knowledge of the physiology of the human body and the wonderful developments of medical science have all had their part, but above all these it is probable that the recognition of the benefits of correct sanitation has done more to lengthen human life than any other thing. Care of the health by observance of the rules of personal hygiene is a matter for the individual, but its good effect is largely nullified by a disregard of the laws of public sanitation. The wearing of overshoes, a strict observance of dietetics, the avoidance of drafts, all will avail nothing to prevent typhoid if people must drink from a contaminated water supply. The care of all the mothers in a district will not prevent sickness among the pupils in a poorly ventilated or heated school building.

The large problems of sanitation have long been recognized and their proper solution has become a matter of routine in the administration of cities and countries. It is axiomatic that a city must have a clean water supply and an efficient sewer system, a proper street-cleaning service and a thorough health inspection. That hospitals, churches, schools, theaters and other public buildings where the people congregate and over which they individually have no control, should be in the same state of sanitary efficiency as their dwellings, or as closely guarded from disease-bearing germs as the civic services, is an idea of only recent exploitation. However, the growth of the germ theory of disease, with the accompanying recognition of the necessity for pure air, sunlight and general cleanliness, is gradually impressing those who are responsible for the construction of public places, with the importance of a more

¹Sanitation of Public Buildings. — By William Paul Gerhard, M. Am. Soc. M. E., Consulting Engineer for Hydraulic and Sanitary Works. New York, London, England. pp. 282. Price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of Charities and The Commons.

rigid adherence to the accepted principles of sanitation in such buildings.

Any book which will aid in bringing about better conditions in structures of a more or less public nature, will materially help the health of the community, and in spite of several marked deficiencies this new book by Mr. Gerhard should be placed in this class. It is rather too much of a general nature to be of more than passing value to engineers and architects. As an exposition of the general principles to be observed it can be read with profit by such professional men, but the technical detail is so marked by its absence or by its obvious nature, that the book will be regarded by the builders responsible for construction principally as a complete statement of the various sanitary difficulties which they must overcome, and not as a text or reference book to aid them in their design. To those officially connected with the administration of public buildings, who, without possessing the training successfully to carry on repairs or new construction, nevertheless must be responsible for its correct design, it should prove good reading and a valuable reference. It will enable them, in enlarging or renovating the buildings under their control or in providing additional buildings, to review the work of their architects and so to supervise the design that a sanitary and healthful structure will be built.

The book is divided into five parts, treating respectively of the sanitation of hospitals, theaters, schools, churches and markets and abattoirs; it only touches upon the very important subject of public bath-houses, as the author has another volume just off the presses on *Modern Baths and Bath Houses*. Of these five topics the chapters on hospitals and schools are of peculiar interest to the non-technical reader, not only because they are of a less technical nature, but because the layman is more apt to be in a position to control to a certain extent the conditions in these two classes of institutions. Then, too, the general welfare of the people is more largely bound up in our schools and hospitals than in our church buildings, theaters or markets. School committees and hospital boards will do well to read these

two chapters. The conditions in the Chicago stock yards, as revealed in popular novels and subsequent or perhaps consequent governmental investigations, have so opened the eyes of the people to the utility of cleanliness in abattoirs and markets, that the remedies proposed by Mr. Gerhard will be read with interest. The chapter on theaters shows signs of age that would argue a rather hasty compilation. Most of it is taken from a paper delivered in 1893 and in the fifteen years which have elapsed since then many changes have occurred which surely warrant revision. That electricity is probably better than gas for theater lighting seems hardly necessary to state now nor is the omission of the Iroquois holocaust excusable in a discussion of theater fires due to lack of asbestos curtains. No mention is made of the admirable vacuum system of cleaning, in which by compressed air the dust from the cloth fittings to auditoriums is sucked into a portable chamber, afterward to be removed. So also in an earlier part of the book the statement is made that slow sand filtration of water, "as practiced in many European water-works," is undoubtedly the best. Surely the many similar plants in this country are worthy of notice. And lastly in this list of adverse criticism, the constant use of the first person singular seems singularly undignified and out of place in a semi-technical treatise.

These are but minor slips which seem to be the result of a lack of appreciation of detail and which do not mar to any great extent the value of the discussion as a whole. The complete bibliographies appended to each chapter will be particularly useful to those readers who wish to continue the subject.

The History of Nursing

Reviewed by Florence M. Dyer, M.D.

A History of Nursing,¹ by M. Adelaide Nutting and Lavinia L. Dock is a most valuable contribution to the literature of that profession. The reader

¹A History of Nursing by M. Adelaide Nutting and Lavinia L. Dock. 2 vols. pp. 1002. Price \$5.00. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of *Charities and The Commons*.

cannot fail to be impressed with the amount of careful patient work which has been done in collecting from so many and often obscure sources the materials for this work. The logical arrangement of these facts makes a clear cut, definite impression on the mind.

Part first deals with the time before the Christian era, and the customs of the ancient nations, as far as they are known, are described. India and its Ayur-Veda which treats of the prevention and cure of disease, Egypt and its oldest medical resources, the Jews with their elaborate system of hygiene, Greece and its temples to Aesculapius, and Rome are all brought brought before us.

Many changes in methods and agencies took place in the years between the dawn of the Christian era and the beginning of the nineteenth century. Women, the deaconesses of the early church, were first in the field; they were followed by the monastic orders, to which both men and women belonged, these by the military nursing orders, brought into existence by the needs of the soldiers of the Holy Wars. Later came "A Group of Saints" with St. Francis of Assisi at the head. The secular orders next receive attention. A detailed account of the nursing systems of the famous Hotel Dieu of Lyons and of Paris is given; and the story of the founding of hospitals in Quebec and Montreal is told.

Among the latter mediæval orders was that of the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul. The attention of the social worker is especially called to the chapters devoted to this order and its founder. In this is an account of the founding of the first charity organization society

on the same lines and with the same general principles as the societies of today.

England's part of the story makes sorry reading, and conditions there at the beginning of the twentieth century are bad almost beyond relief.

Volume II opens with a chapter on the birth of the deaconess movement at Kaiserwerth in 1822 and its marvelous growth. It began in a tiny two-room cottage with one inmate and now it has thirty branch houses in Germany alone; and has the honor of being the model for the deaconess work in every denomination. Much space is given to the work and writings of Florence Nightingale the "Lady-in-Chief" of the Crimean War and the "revered foundress of modern trained nursing." One marvels at the intellect and strength which were equal not only to the organizing and directing of the nursing force of the Crimea but to the making and carrying out of the plan, which has risen to the dignity of a profession to which any woman may be proud to belong, work which not many years ago was done by the lowest classes.

The fight in America, which differs in no respect from that waged elsewhere, receives due attention. The struggles of the New York Hospital, The Woman's Hospital of Philadelphia, and the New England Hospital for Women and Children, of Boston, are well brought out and the horrors of the early days of Blockley and Bellevue are painted with a skillful hand.

The book ends at the beginning of the modern system and we lay it down with a feeling of impatience for the promised volume which will complete the history.

Mrs. Humphry Ward on Play

Mrs. Humphry Ward, the novelist, is better known to America than Mrs. Humphry Ward, promoter of playgrounds, secretary of a settlement and advocate of the socialization of public

The whole theory and practice of play, in the educational meaning which the word bears nowadays, were discussed at the dinner, not because the 400 men and women present needed to strengthen their



MRS. HUMPHRY WARD

From a new portrait by Albert Sterner. Copyright, 1905, by Harper & Brothers

schools. But it was in these unprofessional capacities that she was guest of honor at a dinner given last week by the Playground Association of America at the Waldorf-Astoria, New York, and at a reception by the College Settlement.

hands at the work of providing play, but because the presence of Mrs. Ward and of the Duchess of Marlborough at the speakers' table invited an international stock-taking, as it were, of the breadth and depth of a vital new thing, and an

opportunity for adding together the vision of many keen eyes for a glimpse into the future.

Thus it was that Richard Watson Gilder, the toastmaster, spread out broadly the purpose of the gathering in the sentence: "To the decree that mankind shall work for its daily bread is added the decree that mankind shall play—for the salvation of both its body and its soul—a decree so inwrought in the very constitution of man that there is no greater danger to mankind, especially in its state of childhood, than the prevention or the misdirection of play."

Thus it was that to Jacob Riis's conception of play as a baseball game forming a safety valve for riotous boyhood, was added Mrs. Ward's definition, which might have included any wholesome occupation out of school hours; and finally Jane Addams's who called it recreation, the offering of innocent gaiety and social contact apart from lust and gain, an antidote for cheap dance halls, an offering of wholesome amusement for a generation of girls called forth from their homes by their labor value to an industrial city. That a girl should be a workman, a factory asset, more than a woman-in-the-making, Miss Addams holds a shameful thing. Mr. Riis told of the first vacation school in New York and of the fight there was to get it, while Dr. William H. Maxwell made report of 100, and of the lengthening list of social activities undertaken by the Board of Education—evening schools and lectures, vacation schools, playgrounds, recreation centers, and the Public Schools Athletic League.

Robert W. deForest spoke briefly on the relation of public and private endeavor to a new municipal activity. "Any movement for the improvement of social conditions even within the proper sphere of municipal action," he said, "should wait for private philanthropy to mark the way. The taxpayers should not be called upon for its support until it has passed beyond the lines of experiment and become a success." Even then, he pointed out, city administrations with short terms of office are not always the best managers and a partnership between

public and private management and support may turn out best. He referred to the long established and successful partnership between the city of New York and its Art Museum, Natural History Museum, Botanical Garden and Zoological Park as illustrating the excellent results attained through such a partnership. Incidentally, Mr. deForest explained the relation of the Russell Sage Foundation, of which he is vice-president, to the Playground Association. The first public grant of the foundation was to enable the Playground Association to make an adequate exhibit at the Jamestown Exposition, and one of the largest subsequent grants has been to enable it to carry on its work. By acting thus through others the foundation believes that more will be accomplished than if it did the work itself. "I hope this may not reduce the resources of the association," said Mr. deForest. "It is not the policy of the Russell Sage Foundation to support permanently any cause of this kind no matter how good. It is the foundation's policy to start it, to set it moving, but not to keep it moving—that it must do itself."

The Duchess of Marlborough, responding to The Responsibilities of Women, outlined the strong sense of obligation to the community felt by English women from their earliest years, and of the lifelong service which many of them give in fulfilling it. She urged this service on American women. "The amelioration of the social and educational conditions under which the children of the big cities are being brought up is in truth a worthy beginning," she said. "Surely this is woman's work, surely woman's duty." A little later Mrs. Kate Douglas Wiggin further appropriated play-making as a part of woman's work, "though men may be useful in many little ways." Directed play, Mrs. Wiggin pointed out, if it become perfunctory and mechanical, is open to a hundred ills. Just here is where woman's best part in it comes, for woman can do for play what she has done to keep the kindergarten fresh and open-minded, a growing thing. Mr. Riis had expressed the same thought earlier in the evening in characteristic

way: "A boy is a steamboiler and like a steamboiler he has a safety valve; if you sit on that and hold it down you'll have mischief." And Dr. Maxwell, quoting Miss Julia Richman, pointed out that new as the playground movement is it has already shown indications of possible evil, as in Seward park, where the bit of open land bought at the price of many years' hard work has become a menace to boys and girls through the presence of corrupt men and women who are allowed there as result of lax direction and policing.

To the discussion and good cheer of the evening Dr. Luther H. Gulick, as president of the association, added in closing the evening a bit of prophecy of the city which is to be:

This Playground Association means a new attitude toward the city. The forces that make and characterize the city have been the coming together of men. The association means the coming together, the socialization, not only of adults, but of children. The time has come when children have something better than the play beside the cottage—directed play; when the children will grow up more healthy and wholesome in the city than in the country because of human relationships. We are sure to become a city people and unless the children grow up clean and healthy, we are done—unless the city children have incorporated in them that which is worth while.

Utilization of the public schools,—buildings and grounds, teachers and equipment,—was the major part of the message which Mrs. Ward brought with her. "There are causes which are necessary and grimy; causes which are necessary and tiresome; but this surely, this national question of the playtime of our school children, is a cause both necessary and delightful," she said. She pointed out that the time between the close of school in the afternoon and the opening of recreation centers and classes in the evening is a time in which the tenement child must of necessity play on the street, subject to all its influences, or be shut up tightly in the crowded, airless rooms of its home. Dr. Maxwell strongly backed up this point in the statement that there could be no greater blunder than failing to use the sixty-eight million dollar plant of the Board of Education more than five

hours in a day for nine months in the year. Mrs. Ward drew a strong picture: "On the one side the empty buildings—on the other side the children in need of room for health and play. How are we to bring them together?"

Asking herself the question, what is play, and why so much importance is attached to it in modern education, Mrs. Ward found two sides to it,

—the making, contriving, willing side and the co-operative side. In the first the child is king of its world, exercising its tiny will on all that is smaller, and in the second it is learning to give and to take. But after the development of personality must come the discipline of personality, and here it is that all combined and co-operative play is invaluable. The children of the rich are now perhaps overdone with toys and games, but the children of the poor have still to enter on their true heritage of play. America has led the way in vacation schools and organized playgrounds, but what is wanted is not merely a holiday provision, but a daily and familiar alternative for the children of the poor to the life of the street, and we want to use the public schools for that purpose.

The evils of street life for children were given point by statements from a number of English magistrates who have been looking into the subject and who are appalled with the results of street life upon children, particularly with the growth of gambling among boys—"these boys are one and all on the road to a criminal life." On the other hand, so much has been said of the evil of the street that the more respectable parents have come greatly to fear it and as result they are more and more determined to keep their children off the streets which means that they spend a very large portion of their playtime in tenement rooms eleven or twelve feet square with no room for play and a minimum of fresh air.

About eleven years ago the Passmore Edwards Settlement, of which Mrs. Ward is secretary, began to organize amusement and occupation for school children, beginning in a small way with a Saturday morning playroom. Evening classes, mostly for musical drill and dancing, were added, with a weekly attendance the first winter of 350. Now, for many years past the attendance is rarely short of 2,000 a week. The teachers of the neighboring schools co-operate in

sending children and asking that special children be admitted, and bear willing testimony to the freshness and capacity for work of the children who have spent the evening at the settlement. The children get so attached to the settlement that they have been known to bring their parents back to this part of London, even from the country because they cannot do without it. "I venture to think," said the speaker, "that there are few prettier sights in London than the settlement on a winter evening, humming with children, perfectly orderly, cooking, sewing, carpentering, drilling, dancing, reading, acting, playing good games, and the like, unless it be the same place in summer when the large shady garden is alive with three or four hundred children who have their games, their sandpit, their cricket and their quiet groups under the trees." The success of this recreation school led three years ago to the foundation of eight others in London and now there are twelve, open from 5:30 until 7:30 every night and on Saturday mornings. There is a paid superintendent for each center, assisted by both paid and voluntary workers. The children are chosen in the first instance by the teachers in the nearby schools. Each child attends normally twice a week, but a third attendance is allowed for the library or for a lantern lecture, while children coming from neglected homes or those whose parents are at work until late in the evening, may attend every evening. The centers are open from September to July, and from April onwards they are kept so far as possible in the open air. The cost of the centers has increased with the attendance from 125 pounds each in 1905 to 200 pounds this year. The London County Council gives the use of the rooms, lighting, heating and caretaking, and a fund of 2,500 pounds is raised annually in addition to carry on the work. "Let me just say in passing that I owe it to the friendliness of America and to the three or four lectures that I am to give in your country before returning, that we shall be able to start a new play center," said Mrs. Ward.

In England, it appears, the teaching of manual training has seldom begun for

a boy until he is eleven or twelve. Although this has been somewhat changed and work begins earlier now, there is such a pressure on the manual classes that they are 11,000 places short. To meet this need has been one of the strongest aims of the centers.

One other point the speaker strongly urged for consideration—the lack of a home. "The rich can supplement their own deficiencies, they can buy the best of care for their children during their play hours for they know well that those hours are just as important as the work hours. Their children have both the artificial home of a well-ordered school and the natural home of the holidays. But amongst the poor the children suffer from a veritable plague of homelessness."

Closing, Mrs. Ward said:

Let us then use this great opportunity, not to enter into any rivalry with either the school or the home, but to help both; let us tire the children healthfully by good games which may send them sleepy to bed; let us give the contriving child the opportunity to use its fingers; the laughing, sociable child the opportunity for talk and fun under wholesome conditions; let us give the timid, delicate, nervous child shelter and care; let us above all draw in the parents, attach to each center its parents' guild, and try heartily to interest them in the education of their children. Changes are coming, changes in civilization, in character, in social spirit. We must believe it, or we are no longer in any sense Christian. But meanwhile let us of this generation do our part to mend what is amiss, to supplement what is lacking. The children of the nation are the treasure of the nation. In their small hands lie the England, the America of the future. What will they make of these great countries? They will make of them what we, who are now in possession, enable them to make.

The next day at the College Settlement, a reception was tendered Mrs. Ward by the Neighborhood Workers Association and she spoke briefly to the workers assembled. "For a time after Arnold Toynbee and his generation it seemed as if the settlement movement had receded, as if we were in the trough of the wave, but that is no longer true and the settlements in London are stronger and doing more work than ever before," she said. Speaking particularly of Passmore Edwards House, Mrs. Ward told of its

organizing the first public work for crippled children ever done in London, and of the great number of clubs and classes which it carries on, so much of the time under the spreading trees of its yard. Of the things which are to the fore now in England, she spoke particularly of the sittings of the parliamentary committee which is looking into sweating and gave as her positive opinion that within a few years, whether Liberal or Conservative be in power, a minimum wage will be established and other steps taken to prevent the exploiting of the poorest and weakest workers.

Jottings

Washington's Civic Center.—The Industrial Department of the Civic Center of Washington during the past year has devoted its efforts to calling attention to the need of a child labor law in the District of Columbia. The task has been difficult because of the general impression that the abuses connected with the employment of children arise only from factory employment. The very serious evils caused by permitting children to work in the street trades without restrictions as to the age of the child, or protecting the child from the dangers of street life at night, are not fully appreciated at the present time. It is the hope of the civic center that greater weight will be given to these considerations when the bill regulating the employment of children is re-introduced.

Effort has also been made to secure legislation to prevent the spread of tuberculosis in the District of Columbia.

The Educational Department evidently agrees with the Board of Trade Committee on Schools that, as Mr. Baldwin expressed it, what the schools of Washington need just now is quiet, with plenty of it. The following were urged as the most pressing educational needs of the city:

A larger number of attendance officers; prohibition of child labor, as a help in the enforcement of the school attendance law; provision of an adequate penalty for repeated violations of that law.

A larger number of modern, sanitary school buildings; a playground for every school.

Introduction of manual training and cooking earlier in the grade schools; a manual training room in or near each school building.

Vacation schools and kitchen-gardens.

Extension of the course of the normal schools, with teachers' salaries equal at least to those of the highest grade in the high schools.

The Kitchen Garden Housekeeping Course. In the equipment and operation of kitchen gardens, which were started in 1880 in New York by Miss Emily Huntington, the use of toys (dolls' tea sets, wooden tubs, bedsteads and the like) has played an important part in making it possible for instruction in housework to be given in an interesting way to fairly large classes of children. In a recent letter, Miss Huntington makes the statement that she has come to the conclusion that a period has now been reached when the toys can be abolished. "The child of ten years of age thirty years ago was much younger than the child of to-day of the same age. The poor have more opportunities for education than formerly and toys are given more generously." The list of articles needed, as published in Miss Huntington's book, can still be used for a guide; but, instead of the folding papers, fifty cents would buy 500 paper napkins with which the folding lesson could be taught. Wooden toothpicks could take the place of the sticks if half of them could be colored. The table lesson could have a square table in the middle of the room and from a class of any number seated around the room, the teacher could select different girls to set the different courses and serve. The bed lesson could make use of a good sized doll's bed, or even a cot. At a ten cent store, real trays or wooden plates could be bought and also brooms for the drill. In other words, a good teacher can now at very modest expense provide the equipment needed for the kitchen garden course.

In Lighter Vein.—On one occasion, when Timothy Nicholson (who has recently retired from charity work at the age of eighty years), was heading a prosecution of illegal liquor selling in Richmond, Ind., one of the defendants was put on the witness stand, and was asked, among other questions, if he was acquainted with Mr. Nicholson. Answering in the affirmative, he was asked what kind of a man Nicholson was. He said he was "a pretty good man, take him altogether, and he would be a first class fellow if he would only leave liquor alone."

Loyal C. Smith's Bequests.—By the terms of the will of the late Loyal C. Smith of Plattsburgh, N. Y., munificent bequests were left to Plattsburgh and Clinton county. To the Plattsburgh Young Men's Christian Association Mr. Smith left \$100,000 for endowment; also \$35,000 to finish their proposed new building, \$30,000 for this purpose having been already raised by the citizens of Plattsburgh and friends. To Champlain Valley Hospital, he left \$25,000 to complete the new building, and \$200,000 for endowment, with the proviso that there shall be at least five free beds maintained in perpetuity in the institution. The Home for the Friendless of Northern New York receives under Mr. Smith's will \$50,000, also

the Vilas Home for Old Ladies, \$50,000. After leaving large amounts to other institutions and organizations in Clinton county, and providing liberally for his family connections in various parts of the country, Mr. Smith devises the residue of his estate to be held in a permanent trust fund, the income of which is to be devoted to the education of the boys of Clinton county. This bequest provides for education up to its highest forms, academic, university and graduate courses—and the exceptional opportunity will be open to any worthy youth of ability resident in Clinton county. In case the income from this educational trust fund is more than sufficient for Clinton county applicants, the surplus can be used for boys in the adjacent counties—Franklin and Essex.

Another Record for Tuberculosis Exhibits.—The Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis reports two new high records in connection with the display of its travelling exhibition.

During a five days' engagement at Clinton, Mass., which has a population of 13,000, a total of 7,074 visitors was registered, or over 1,400 a day. The first night's registration was 1,091, the largest number recorded as attending on the opening night in any small city.

In addition to the usual methods of placing circulars in public schools, churches, railway stations, hotels, factory pay envelopes, and dry goods bundles, and the use of placards in windows, the Clinton committee inserted a five by seven inch advertisement in the *Clinton News*.

The committee has proved its theory that after the initial expense of the exhibit each additional expenditure would increase the return upon the first investment.

Special arrangements were made to have Polish interpreters on hand to explain the exhibition to their countrymen who were unable to read English inscriptions or to understand the lectures which were delivered in English.

San Francisco's Probation Officer.—J. C. Astredo has been appointed to the position of chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court of San Francisco. Mr. Astredo was one of the active and useful workers in the relief work succeeding the disaster of April, 1906.

Federation a Success in Baltimore.—Baltimore is finding federation of Jewish charities a genuine success. As it has been in active operation for over a year it is no longer an experiment. The education which federation has given to the men most closely interested in communal work and the broad outlook for comprehensive development of charitable work, which has been its direct effect, have made Baltimore realize that a return to the old individual methods would be out of the question.

The annual report presented an increase

in subscriptions and made a special plea for further development of work with delinquents. The establishment of a social center and the extension of the present facilities for social work were urged.

These officers and directors were elected: President, Dr. Jacob H. Hollander; first vice-president, Eli Frank; second vice-president, Samuel L. Hamburger; treasurer, Albert A. Brager; directors, Leon E. Greenbaum, Jacob B. Cahn, Louis Cahn.

Baltimore's Working Girls' Home.—Under new management the Working Girls' Home maintained in Baltimore by the Daughters of Israel has been overcrowded for the past year. Twenty-seven girls are housed there and fifty have availed themselves of the home during the past year. Twelve of these were immigrant girls. Last October the Federation of Jewish Charities gave the managers of the home an additional appropriation with which to rent another building in which club and class work could be carried on, thus leaving the home entirely for residence purposes. The new settlement house has twenty-seven afternoon classes and thirty evening. These include eight social and literary clubs.

Kentucky's New Juvenile Court Bills.—The new juvenile court bill, and the adult responsibility bill for the state of Kentucky described by Bernard Flexner in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for March 14, have been passed by the legislature and signed by the governor. Mr. Flexner, and the others concerned in the passage of the adult responsibility law will keep careful record of its operation with a view to testing the results.

Maryland State Conference.—The fourth annual Maryland State Conference of Charities and Correction, will meet in McCoy Hall, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, April 30 and May 1. The committees having the work in charge are: The Care of the Sick,—Prof. Joseph S. Ames, chairman, Dr. Charles P. Emerson, vice-chairman; Children,—Miss Lucy F. Friday, chairman, Prof. William Bullock Clark, vice-chairman; Defectives,—Dr. Edward N. Brush, chairman, Dr. Percy Wade, vice-chairman; County Jails and Almshouses,—DeCourcy W. Thom, chairman, John T. Stone, vice-chairman; State Supervision and Inspection,—Dr. Charles M. Ellis, chairman, Judge Alfred S. Niles, vice-chairman.

Visiting Nurses Conference.—The Visiting Nurses of America will hold a national conference at the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, April 25. There will be a morning, afternoon and evening session, and the Board of Directors of the Chicago Visiting Nurse Association will entertain at luncheon. The meeting will be significant, as it is the first of its kind held in the United States. Its purpose is to show what a large and specific field in social betterment work the visiting

nurse now occupies, and what need training schools accordingly have for giving the pupil nurse special knowledge of this work, thus helping to raise the standard of visiting nurse service in every possible way.

Phases of the subject will be discussed by experts in visiting nursing and the various social and philanthropic agencies to which the work is closely related. The program includes addresses by Jane Addams of Hull House, on the Relation of the Visiting Nurse to the Public School Child; Judge Julian W. Mack on the Relation of the Visiting Nurse to the Delinquent and Deficient Child; Dr. J. Clarence Webster, of the consulting staff of the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago, on the Present, Past and Future of Visiting Nurse Work; and Miss Annie Damer, of the Nurses' Settlement, New York, and president of the Nurses' Associated Alumnae, on the Opportunity for the Visiting Nurse in Country Districts. All nurses and the public are invited to attend the discussions.

To Teach Housekeeping in the Home.—A "visiting housekeeper" is to be engaged by the Toledo Federation of Charities if present plans are carried out. Her duties will be to visit the families reported as needing her instruction in the first principles of cleanliness and those who wilfully sin in that respect, and also to look after any family where the mother may have to go to the hospital. Breaking up the family during her absence will thus be prevented. It is hoped to have this "housekeeper" appointed as a sanitary officer, by the Board of Health and that she may be recognized as having the authority of such to do the work, or see that it is done, when she is sent into one of the families needing her instruction. She is to work under the direction of the central office of the Federation of Charities when the overseers or investigators report cases needing her services to the general secretary.

Social Service in the Free Synagogue.—Progress has been made by the Social Service Department of Dr. Stephen S. Wise's Free Synagogue, New York city. Rev. Sidney E. Goldstein is the director of social service, and the Executive Council has as its chairman Ely Bernays. The work is divided into hospital work, personal work and orphan asylum work. Each branch meets on a different Monday evening during the month, and on the last Monday in the month there is a general assembly, which is addressed by some expert in the work which they are trying to do. The purpose of the general assembly meeting is to present to the members of the social service section the problems with which they are dealing from the vantage point of the expert. These stated addresses, with monthly discussions in each committee and with the reading of assigned pamphlets and books on social economy, form what may be described as an elementary school of philanthropy.

Free Loan Associations.—Free loan associations to assist immigrants and business men are being established in Altoona, Pa., Fall River, Mass., and Pittsburgh, Pa. These are being modeled on the Hebrew Free Loan Society of New York.

New Tenements in Paris.—The *Société Anonyme de Logements Economique* has recently opened its second dwelling for large families in the Montmartre quarter of Paris, France. This building contains ninety-four apartments, with rent varying from 184 francs (\$36.80) to 424 francs (\$84.80) annually. It accommodates 620 people, 427 of whom are children. It consists of three detached buildings each seven or eight stories in height. Each apartment has its own gas and water fixtures. The majority of apartments have a balcony opening out upon the general parlor, the kitchen and the dining room. The partitions which separate the rooms of the parents and children do not reach to the ceiling. The windows are so constructed that the children cannot open them. There is a balustrade for children below the usual one on the stairs.

The society was organized to erect cheap sanitary dwellings for poor families with more than three children. The interest on the capital is to be no more than three per cent. Two more such buildings are in process of construction in Paris.

Organized Play in Missouri.—The University of Missouri has undertaken a new form of extension work. To the work for teachers in several cities of the state and the School of Philanthropy for social workers in St. Louis, there has been added extension work in physical education for the children and young people of the state. Missouri is the first of the states to attempt to control the play of her people and that, too, through her state university. Royal L. Melendy, formerly professor of social economics in the University of Cincinnati, has been appointed to the position of instructor in physical education and has begun the actual field work of organizing the play activities of the state and of developing a state-wide system of physical education. St. Louis and Kansas City already having provided certain playgrounds, the extension work will be begun in St. Joseph, the third largest city of the state. It is the plan of the department of physical education to extend the work to the smaller cities and towns and to the rural communities. A playgrounds association has been formed and ground secured for playgrounds in Columbia, the seat of the university.

Work at Educational Alliance, New York.—It is encouraging to find an institution that is not complaining of the stress of these hard times. The Educational Alliance, New York, announced at its annual meeting that it had a surplus of some

\$22,000, although it had expended over \$100,000 during the year. The society, however, felt that the outlook was discouraging for special contributions in this year, especially as educational work does not appeal as readily as material assistance. The principal work of the alliance seems to have been civic instruction of immigrants. In co-operation with this is an information bureau, which furnishes facts about farms and smaller cities. The information bureau also arranged a series of lectures showing the industrial opportunities throughout the country and distributed pamphlets on the same subject. The Legal Aid Bureau of the alliance shows the largest gain. It has an average daily attendance of sixty-five. In 1903 there were 3,791 persons who applied for help by the bureau, and this number has increased yearly until last year 22,318 persons applied. At the annual meeting a tribute was paid to Dr. Blaustein. No new superintendent has as yet been appointed, and in the meantime Dr. Fleischman is still the acting superintendent.

Probation in Michigan.—In our issue of March 14 an article on state supervision of probation officers stated that Michigan first empowered its State Board of Corrections and Charities in 1907 to collect reports from probation officers, to inquire into probation work and report recommendations thereon to the legislature. The facts are that in 1903 in Michigan probation officers for adults were required to report annually through the county clerks to the State Board of Corrections and Charities, and that in 1905 probation officers for juveniles were required to report directly to the same board.

As early as 1873 Michigan had county agents working under the direction of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, to which agents it was required that the courts should refer all cases of children arrested under the age of sixteen years, in order that the county agents might investigate the circumstances and history of each such child and report on the same to the court. While the work of these county agents was akin to probation work, the term probation officer as applied to either the county agents or to others was not used in the statutes of that state until 1903. Juvenile court laws were adopted in 1905 and 1907 by which children's cases are heard as equity cases in the county probate courts.

Care of Idiot Children in France.—As early as 1842 Edward Seguin introduced medico-pedagogical care among the idiot children at Bicêtre. In 1878 Dr. Bourneville further developed Dr. Seguin's system and inaugurated at Bicêtre methods which have met with universal approval and adoption. At Bicêtre 450 boys of the poorest

class from the ages of two to eighteen years are cared for. The children are taught not only control and habits of cleanliness, but trades in many cases.

They are divided into three groups. Class I includes the infirm idiots and epileptics of whom the absolutely incurable are further separated from their companions.

Class II includes the non infirm idiots and epileptics. These children are taught habits of cleanliness. They learn to dress themselves. They acquire good table manners. Their sense of touch, taste, smell, sight and hearing is developed.

Class III (150 in number) contains the imbecile, infirm, the non-infirm and the epileptics, all of whom are taught advanced gymnastics, dancing and fencing and voice culture. Prior to their instruction in writing they are taught drawing and in a few instances advanced drawing, designing and geometry. Instruction is also given in gardening, carpentry, basketry, raffia, caning and dressmaking. The products are used by the public hospitals and represent an annual income of 20,000 francs (\$4,000.00). From ten to twelve per cent of the children are able to leave Bicêtre and to become self-supporting. The others help in the Home for Aged at Bicêtre or in the institution itself.

Very recently a commission has been appointed to investigate and report on the most modern systems of care and education of defective children.

Jewish Expenditure in Berlin.—The income and expenditure of the Jewish Community of Berlin are shown to be among the largest in the world. A report just issued covering three years shows that an average of 8,500,000 marks is expended annually. The Jewish boys and girls' schools of the community cost 125,000 marks a year and charitable work about 4,500,000 marks. The remainder is devoted to religious work and administration. In addition to the sums for which this report accounts and which are communal charges a number of independent Jewish Charities and Societies are maintained.

Jewish Working Girls Vacation Societies.—During the summer nearly 700 girls were given vacations at the Jewish Working Girls' Vacation Society's Homes at Bellport, L. I., and at Big Indian in the Catskills. The girls entertained, pay board whenever able to do so, but there is a large fund for free vacations which has been added to by gifts during the past year. The house has grown from providing, in 1895, 215 weekly vacations, to providing 1,255 in 1907. Mrs. Samuel Greenbaum is the president of the society.

Social Forces

By the Editor

THE ABNORMALITY OF VICE

Among the fallacies which have power to mislead men to their destruction and communities to their vital injury, there is none more mischievous than the assumption that vice is merely excess, a more or less harmless and half pardonable indulgence in pleasures from which ordinary persons are restrained by a stern sense of duty, the satisfying of an entirely natural appetite in perhaps unconventional, but still, from a physiological and rational point of view, quite normal ways. The fact is that neither natural appetite nor what has traditionally been known as the romantic passion has much to do with the system of vice which has fastened itself upon our modern communities. Prostitution and the diseases in its train, whether we like it or not, are matters of social concern. The first step in forming a public policy for dealing with them is to understand the essential character of the foundation upon which the vice system of our towns and cities rests. When we assume, as some do openly and many more tacitly, that vice is inherently attractive, that it appeals to an ineradicable instinct in human nature, and that we can at best only regulate certain of its more obnoxious and flaunting manifestations, we are giving the strongest possible support to the active, but not ineradicable, forces which make for vice. It is not so. Vice is not inherently attractive. It is repulsive. It lives and flourishes not because men and women have healthy appetites and instincts, but because there is money to be made by developing and keeping alive unhealthy appetites and abnormal instincts. Vice reeks with foul disease, but with more foul cupidity. If it could be deprived of the unholy profits which it yields to cadets, proprietors, police and politicians, its foundations would change from rock to crumbling sand.

It needs no argument that the vast body of working men and women, and of those who are legitimately engaged in any honorable calling are not kept from indulgence in vice by external restraint, or by a constant effort of will. An individual may indeed have temptations which it requires heroic efforts and even the encouragement of friends to resist, but a higher morality, and a more natural adjustment eventually lessen or remove these temptations, and the vast majority turn from vice because it does not attract them. The end in view in religion, in family training, in public education, in that very civilization of which church and home and school are normal, typical features, and prostitution and alcoholism and poverty are typically abnormal features, is the development of individuals who live honest and virtuous lives because they

prefer it, because it is easier for them, because honesty and decency are natural.

Five obstacles are encountered. First, adult ignorance of the consequences. That one venereal disease is the principal cause of sterile marriages, and another the most virulent cause of physical degeneracy, leading directly to insanity, paralysis, blindness and other afflictions, should be generally known and appropriate defensive measures devised. Such facts as these are not generally known, and many persons become nervous as soon as it is attempted to make them known.

Second, the neglect of the proper education of children. There is no suggestion that children should be dragged through the mire of unnecessary and premature acquaintance with evil. What should be taught is an appreciation of health and vigor and of the conditions of their preservation. The processes of reproduction should be explained, in the first instance, and this necessarily means at an earlier age than is usually supposed by parents, teachers, pastors, physicians or friends and should not be associated, in their first presentation to the mind of the child, with vile suggestion.

Third, adverse economic and social conditions. Low wages in factories and stores, overwork, with intermittent periods of compulsory idleness without income, overcrowding and lack of privacy in tenements, and other destructive conditions at home and at work, are an appreciable factor in keeping up the supply of victims for the vice system. Privation and hard work do not of themselves make either prostitutes or their patrons, but, in extreme degrees, they help to make unhealthy appetites and they bring extraordinary temptations.

Fourth, corrupt police and inefficient judiciary. We treat prostitution as a crime, but we treat it very inefficiently. Probably it would be extreme to describe those sections of the penal code which relate to the subject, the futile fine system, with the shadow of the cell and the workhouse in the background, as nothing more than a base of operations for political and police corruption, and yet, as these matters are now handled in most cities, this would seem to be their chief purpose. Fines have been imposed on offenders in our courts who have been similarly arraigned and fined in the same court, before the same magistrate, within two hours. A policeman, in answer to an inquiry as to what such fines accomplished, remarked that their only effect is to send the women out to earn more money to pay their fine.

Fifth, the financial stake. It is notorious that the race track gambling bills were beaten by reason of the profits to be made in exploiting one human weakness. Child labor continues, not because there are differences of opinion about it among disinterested people, but because there is much money to be made by hiring children. Vice similarly has its white slave traffic, its organized system of decoying girls its ramifications with hotels, amusements, resorts, disorderly houses and flats, and the police force. Not all disorderly women are unfortunate and unwilling victims of adverse circumstances. They are often, perhaps usually, criminals and are to be so treated—humanely and intelligently. We are now doing neither. Far worse, however, is our failure to treat as felons of an infinitely more dangerous stamp all who make money or hold position or power by encouraging and perpetuating the vice system.

PRIEST AND SETTLEMENT

The judicious friends of the Rev. Father James B. Curry of St. James Church in James st., New York, must have been sorely grieved when they read in the newspapers of Monday morning that he had felt constrained to denounce the women who in the Jacob A. Riis House and other settlements are working for the moral, social and physical welfare of the East Side. They need no defense. Of the offenses charged against them they are not guilty. That a priest should preach against childless marriages may be justifiable; but that he should hurl in anger against particular women the reproach that if they loved children they would bear them, is incredibly unjust and cruel. Let St. James Church emulate the settlements in their practical concern for the physical and educational well-being of the young people of its parish rather than fulminate against its neighbors and the ominous desertions which have aroused the priest's ire will be less in evidence. This journal is quite as much Catholic and Jewish as it is Protestant. We hold no brief for settlements when they are fairly criticized, but unless the newspapers have done him grievous wrong Father Curry has borne false witness and for this, though he were St. Peter himself, the veriest cock in the barnyard must needs raise a voice in protest.

THE SERVICE OF THE SETTLEMENTS

Perhaps there is no better occasion than this for a further word of appreciation of settlements, suggested especially by certain ill-natured and reactionary criticism recently directed against them in Chicago and to a less extent elsewhere. The church, the public school, or the home itself should not be more secure from such malicious misrepresentation than the settlements. They are centers of social order, of enlightenment, of justice. So far from being hot-beds of socialism or anarchism it is really in such places as these that the true anti-toxin for anarchism and revolution is to be found.

In the settlements the sympathetic visitor breathes a rare atmosphere of earnest devotion to humanity, of neighborliness and good citizenship, of eager interest in the progress of every good cause and abundant tolerance for differences in point of view. The more permanent residents in such a home may bring to it a great diversity of gifts and plans, but a process of natural selection and interaction of influences insures, at any rate, sincerity of purpose, an intelligent interest in civic affairs, an appreciation of the value of honest and efficient government, indeed a certain passion for justice and a determination to bring into the heritage of the full citizenship of our free country such as have been denied political or economic opportunity in other lands. Of formal religion there may be much or little, but of an essentially religious atmosphere there is as much, if a frequent visitor may have an opinion, as one might expect, and would sometimes fail to find, in a monastery or a theological seminary. Of the spirit of brotherhood, of the deeper experiences with human suffering and struggle, of the knowledge of all those things which tend to increase the efficiency of the man who without help will sink under an impossible burden, there is no lack in the settlement, or among those whom we call social workers, those who are steadfastly for the common welfare, whatever their religious or political creed.

Working for honesty and efficiency in government, against vice, crime, graft,

and corruption; for the common welfare, against the crook whether in or out of office; for a better city, against much that now claims to represent the city—it is not surprising that they should encounter opposition and that there should appear now and then signs of reaction and opposition.

Neither in the Roman Catholic church nor elsewhere are such attacks representative of the sober judgment of those whose opinions are entitled to respect. They represent on the contrary bigotry, or ignorance, or the consciousness of an unjust cause. Such detraction should not be taken too seriously. Opposition is a sign of success. Misunderstanding is a stage of progress. Well entrenched evils will not yield without a struggle and struggle to them means recrimination.

DR. KOCH'S VISIT TO AMERICA

Robert Koch, in his brief visit to America, has accepted only one of many invitations from medical and scientific bodies which would have delighted to do him honor. This distinction, appropriately enough, has fallen to the German Medical Society of the city of New York. Professor W. H. Welch of Baltimore was chosen to give expression in English to the appreciation in which Koch's services are held by his professional brethren and disciples in America. Of the first of the brilliant discoveries which have made the scientist famous, that of the anthrax germ, Dr. Welch was able to speak from personal knowledge, having been a student at Breslau, when Dr. Koch in the early eighties, then at the beginning of his extraordinary career, came to impart the new and literally epoch-making knowledge. The four years immediately following are unparalleled in the history of bacteriology. Cholera and tuberculosis yielded their secrets, and the instruments were forged by which science would, one after another, wrest from reluctant nature a knowledge of the micro-organisms which are responsible for the infectious diseases. Dr. Welch held it to be the unique distinction of Robert Koch that he discovered the method, and in addition proved himself to be a master hand in using the method which he had thus initiated and perfected.

Peculiar interest attaches to the brief statement by Dr. Koch himself concerning the results which he expects from the Koch Institute recently founded at Berlin, of which Andrew Carnegie has been the most liberal benefactor. Referring appreciatively to the decrease in the death rate from tuberculosis since the public acceptance of the idea that it is eradicable, and to the founding of hospitals for consumptives, he called attention to the unfortunate fact that these institutions after all have only a local significance and that the process of exterminating the disease which they represent is necessarily slow. The Koch Foundation on the other hand will, it is hoped, penetrate into the very nature of the disease itself and so accomplish a result which will be of advantage to mankind. Whether this happy result is to be accomplished by the discovery of a more reliable anti-toxin, or by fuller knowledge of the conditions favorable to immunity, or in some other way, the scientist did not venture to predict. Doubtless as at Saranac, Phipps Institute, Rockefeller Institute and a few other places in this country researches will be pushed in all directions.

Dr. A. Jacobi's eloquent tribute was delivered in German, and closed with a stirring appeal to the brilliant company present on behalf of the International Congress on Tuberculosis at which Robert Koch will be present in spirit, even though in the body he may then be pursuing his researches in India or Japan.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

INTERSTATE HEALTH INVESTIGATIONS

The nimble germ of an epidemic may be observed in a test-tube, but the social complications of its ravages can best be unraveled through field work, which studies its manifestations first hand in one city and then another, and throughout water-sheds which may come under a great variety of health jurisdictions. In this direction a bill¹ has been introduced in the United States Senate giving wider powers to the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, which will enable it to co-operate more effectively with state and local boards of health and perform a truly national function with respect to contagious diseases.

The measure has the approval of the Treasury Department and others interested in public health work, and for instance, would enable the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service to extend to other places the intensive study of typhoid fever now being carried on in Washington under Dr. Rosenau, of its hygienic laboratory. In the words of Surgeon General Walter Wyman, "typhoid fever, because of its wide dissemination, is a national problem, and demands attention both from economic and public health standpoints." The bill provides that in addition to the laboratory investigations now authorized by law of infectious and contagious diseases, the service may make "special investigations into the prevalence of tuberculosis, typhoid fever, rabies and other diseases af-

fecting man, the conditions influencing their propagation and spread, and methods necessary for their prevention and suppression. These investigations shall include housing, occupation, and disposal of waste, as they affect the public health. The investigations of rabies shall include the preparation and issue of the virus or other substance made in the hygienic laboratory for its prevention in those exposed." The surgeon general is further authorized to detail officers to co-operate with state, territory and district authorities in their measures for the protection of public health. The investigations are to be published at the discretion of the secretary of the treasury, and to be disseminated by means of sanitary bulletins and exhibits which are to afford practical information concerning prevention or suppression.

To facilitate co-operation between boards of health and the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, the latter is to be authorized to establish a school of hygiene for which the facilities of the hygienic laboratory shall be available. The school will be open to state, county and municipal health officers who give satisfactory assurance that the special instruction is to be utilized in the performance of official health duties.

This same bill provides for the merging of two independent bureau divisions, that of domestic quarantine and foreign and insular quarantine, and establishes on the other hand a bureau division of water supplies and sewerage; each of these bureau divisions to be in charge of a commissioned medical officer serving as an assistant surgeon general, as now

¹Senate bill 6,102; 60th Congress; introduced March 13, 1908, by Mr. Gallinger and referred to the Committee on Public Health and National Quarantine.

provided by law for the medical officers in charge of the remaining divisions of the bureau. The surgeon general is further directed to investigate the pollution of interstate waters as it affects the public health and make reports necessary to prevent such pollution with recommendations as to necessary legislation. For this and other purposes, the secretary of the treasury is authorized to appoint a sanitary engineer competent to solve technical problems connected with the purification of water and sewerage, and a solicitor who shall be familiar with the public health laws of the national government, states and municipalities, and shall aid in establishing uniform measures for the protection of the public health.

The bill provides more adequately for conferences between the surgeon general and the health authorities of the country and also *per diem* compensation for the members of the advisory board who act as counsel to the surgeon general.

Altogether the measure is one designed to make available the federal resources in attacking certain of the large national problems of health; but to do it in such a way as to strengthen rather than to break down the local health authorities. Not its least noteworthy feature is the emphasis which it places on the importance of the social phases of sanitary investigation, as distinct from the purely laboratory problems.

OUT OF WORK IN NEW YORK

Clergymen, social workers, business men and socialists met last week in the Hotel Astor, New York, and talked over the out-of-work question that has been talked over and written about and investigated so much for the past few months without much apparent result as far as those most directly interested, the unemployed, are concerned. The chairman of this second general conference of the Ethical Social League, the Rev. George William Knox, stated at the outset that remedy after remedy had been proposed to help the 200,000¹ unemployed and to make the burden of the 30,000 vagrants

not quite so easy. What he wanted to know, and what the conference tried to discover, was whether a remedy for the present situation (which is not improving to any perceptible degree) could not be found. That remedy is embodied in a series of resolutions which have been forwarded to Governor Hughes. These resolutions, after giving an estimate of the number of unemployed and vagrants in New York, recite the fact that public works, involving an expenditure of one hundred and ninety-five million dollars, have been authorized and the money appropriated. They urge city and state officials immediately to undertake public works, demand the establishment of state farms for vagrants, call upon the governor and legislature to institute an inquiry into the causes of recurring periods of distress entailing non-employment and urge corporations and others to employ men on reduced time rather than dismiss them or close down.

Frank Julian Warne, whose investigation of the unemployed was published in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for February 8, stated that the seriousness of the situation is minimized at present because the Socialist party is bringing the question to the front. For this reason the conservative papers will not give the problem due emphasis. Before we can ever answer the unemployment question in a satisfactory way, Mr. Warne believes that the vagrant must be separated from the man who would work if he had the chance. The combination of a presidential year, with the fact that merchants have large stocks of goods left over from the cool summer of a year ago, leads him to believe that present unemployment will run well over into the summer and, perhaps, with even greater severity, into the winter. Any scheme for the prosecution of municipal work must consider, Mr. Warne stated, that if the great stream of home-bound immigrants is checked and turned back (as it might be by the inauguration of new public work unless properly safeguarded) the situation will be made so much the worse.

¹ This number is not an estimate in any proper sense. It appears frequently in print and in public discussions but whoever first hit upon it was "largely guessing."—EDITOR.

The "relief solution" of the unemployment question never was and never can be the right solution, according to Lee K. Frankel, of the United Hebrew Charities. "The great bulk of unemployment," he said, "is purely economic, and requires an economic solution. The wonder of relief workers is that applications have been so few, and we are glad to realize that the American workingman is generally finding something besides charity to help him along."

Dr. Frankel believes that it is largely an "underemployed," rather than an "unemployed," situation that confronts us. Thousands of workingmen's families were "living on the edge" when the crisis came. And then the savings went, friends were called in, the food supply was reduced, poorer living quarters were found, and, worst of all, the number of lodgers was increased with consequent disruption of character. In this way unemployment is creating prostitutes, thieves and suicides.

Robert Hunter's survey of European methods of dealing with the problem showed that the situation abroad is essentially different from ours. Most European countries have labor colonies that draw away the vagrant class. Mr. Hunter stated that the seriousness of the situation in this country would be considerably reduced if the aged, the sick and those injured in industry were allowed pensions, as they are in many countries abroad, and were "not forced by the competitive system into an agonizing struggle for bread." He praised Berlin's great employment bureau for the industrially competent, and stated that in Germany every effort is made to encourage state and municipal work, thus stimulating the entire industrial process. A few months ago it was stated, Mr. Hunter said, that there were only 15,000 unemployed in Berlin. In all the time that he was in Germany, he did not see a beggar. The lodging houses (different grades of inmates are kept in different buildings) he believes to be models that could well be followed in this country. New York's inadequate method of herding respectable unemployed with confirmed vagrants is pretty sure to turn

out a uniform product for the backroom of the saloon in winter and for the park bench in summer.

From the business man's point of view, Marcus M. Marks believes that it is poor policy for the merchant and manufacturer to discharge their weaker employees during hard times. The situation is bad enough, he believes, without making it worse by the wholesale discharge of help. "If necessary, put your employes on part time, but don't throw them out entirely."

Rev. Merle St. Croix Wright dwelt on "the ethical point of view." "The church ought to lead the community," said Dr. Wright, "and the community ought to follow the lead where it is good, and cease to follow where it is wrong." At present the leadership of the church is not what it should be by any means, Dr. Wright believes, and unless it assumes the responsibility for social salvation, instead of individual salvation, it cannot hope to take real leadership.

And, after all, as the chairman of the meeting said at the outset, "What is the real remedy?" Perhaps this doctrine of social responsibility that Dr. Wright thinks the church ought to assume could profitably be applied to the individual as well. At least, that's a good remedy for the future.

PLANS FOR DEPENDENT GIRLS IN ILLINOIS

Chicago and its vicinity are being made to realize the shame of a situation which affords to homeless and dependent girls even less opportunity than that given to delinquent boys and girls. The new management of the Illinois Industrial School is, however, making known the facts, and arousing support for the new policy which has been inaugurated, of placing out the younger girls, and providing a suitable school for real industrial training. The new board of trustees came into power January 1, 1907, after an investigation by members of the Chicago Woman's Club and the Board of Cook County Commissioners had exposed the glaring failure of the school to properly care for the children entrusted to it. The county commis-

sioners refused to send juvenile court children to the school unless a radical change was made. The need for a home for the dependent girls was most urgent.

When the new board accepted its responsibilities it found itself in charge of one hundred and fifty children in wretched physical condition, receiving no industrial training and very little education. Owing to the indiscriminate mixing of delinquents, defectives and dependents, there was a complete state of demoralization. It was no easy matter to regenerate this neglected mass of children. A physician was put in charge of the school, trained nurses were secured, and women trained in domestic science were employed as teachers in the efforts to restore the girls physically and morally. A complete set of physical records was compiled, which also gave such family history as could be ascertained. A glance at the first and last statements of these records tell the story. The building was a wreck totally unfit for the conduct of a school or home, but the management was obliged to continue its work there until the children could safely be put into other places. Notwithstanding the great difficulties, by the end of March all children had been placed, principally in homes. During the summer, the industrial school will make the experiment for the state of home-placing, the system which the board of managers agrees is the proper one for children under fourteen years of age. Meanwhile work is in progress toward securing \$200,000 with which to build at Park Ridge, on a farm owned by the school. The sale of the Evanston property will enable the directors to raise the mortgage, which was placed on the farm during a past administration, as well as to provide means toward erecting cottages. It is hoped that enough cottages can be built to care for the girls over fourteen. A complete course in housework, cooking, washing and ironing and domestic service will be given and if means permit, in sewing, farming and gardening. This private charity wishes to give to the dependent girl the same opportunities

that the state is giving the delinquents, to prepare them for lives of usefulness.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN MARYLAND

The Maryland legislature has passed at least three important bills urged by charitable and social organizations of that state. The city charter of Baltimore was amended so that hereafter a tenement is defined as "any house containing three or more families" instead of "more than three families." Such a definition brings the three-family house under the provisions of the tenement house law and will prove an important factor and element of strength in the new housing code which has every prospect of passing the city council.

Complications in the Maryland laws relating to non-support have made impossible the passage of an adequate law, but on the initiative of the Federated Charities of Baltimore the legislature has authorized the governor to appoint an unpaid commission to codify the laws of the state relating to non-support and to bring in recommendations for additional legislation at the next session two years hence. In the meantime a provisional law was passed granting the court discretionary power to order the appropriation of fifty cents a day to the wife and children of an imprisoned, non-supporting husband for every day he actually works.

The new liquor license law increases the fee from \$250 to \$500 for the first year, \$750 for the second year and \$1,000 the third year, without increase thereafter. Newspaper reports indicate that there will be slight, if any, reduction in the number of saloons the first year under the new law, but it is believed there will be considerable reduction as the larger fees come into effect. A local option bill drawn by the Anti-Saloon League was defeated, but the principle of local option was extended to include districts in some counties which have hitherto not been included. More than half of Maryland was already "dry."

ILLINOIS WOMEN FOR INDUSTRIAL LEGISLATION

The industrial committee of the Illinois Federation of Women's Clubs recently held a public conference, significant not only for its program, discussions, and representative attendance from all over the state, but also because it marked the opening of a campaign to take advantage of the opportunity offered by the recent Supreme Court decision declaring constitutional the Oregon law restricting the hours of women's work. As recently pointed out in *CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS*, the Illinois Supreme Court thirteen years ago decided that a state could not, under the federal constitution, restrict the working hours of adult women. The federal Supreme Court decision on the Oregon case gives Illinois at last a chance to secure the legislation it has so long been denied.

To start the movement for this legislation, it was fortunate that the conference in Chicago came so soon after the announcement of the decision. It is peculiarly fitting that the women's clubs of the state, leaders in many other movements of social welfare, should head the movement for the protection of wage-earning women. The industrial committee, under the progressive leadership of Mrs. Raymond Robins, is planning a state-wide effort to line up a strong public sentiment for the early enactment of a law.

From the standpoint of this educational campaign, the attendance upon the conference was most gratifying. Not only were Chicago and nearby cities represented, but delegates were on hand from sections of the state as far distant as Cairo. For hundreds of these club women it was the first opportunity to meet and talk with working girls, many of whom ably filled places on the program and in the discussion. With the inspiration of this intimate contact with those whose personal experience vitalized their accounts of working conditions, the club women of Illinois should rally their forces most effectively in an organized effort for industrial legislation.

In the discussion of Women Workers and Social Costs of the New Industrial-

ism, and Social Safeguards through Union Organization, social workers, club women, and leaders of women's trade unions considered the welfare both of working women and the community, and the ways in which the interests of both can be protected and promoted through union organization. The paper of Dr. Alice Hamilton was especially significant in its definite description of the terrible diseases in certain industries, from which there is no protection, such as the manufacture of matches, and the lead and rubber trades.

Employers' liability and protected machinery were the topics which occupied the afternoon session. The general arguments along these lines were presented by Miss S. P. Breckinridge, T. K. Webster, and Allen T. Burns, all of whom made definite pleas for Illinois legislation. The principal address of the evening was given by Professor Edward A. Ross, of the University of Wisconsin, who outlined the reasons for limiting the hours of women's work. He spoke of the "pacemaking" formerly done by an employe, and now by a machine, with the result that the nervous and muscular strain of a few years of factory life unfits a girl for wifehood and motherhood. In the face of competition the remedy should be not an appeal to the humanity of the employer so much as a persistent effort for a shorter legal working day. The former puts the better employers at the mercy of the standards set by the most unscrupulous, while the latter makes it possible for the most scrupulous to set the standards.

The conference passed a resolution asking Governor Deneen to appoint Miss S. P. Breckinridge of the University of Chicago as a member of the commission authorized by the legislature to investigate occupational diseases and the general conditions of health, safety and comfort of employes in factories.

The Woman's Trade Union League, many of whose members took part in the women's club conference, has recently changed its place of meeting from Hull House to the Hall of the Chicago Federation of Labor. Ever since the league was formed the regular monthly Sunday

afternoon meeting has been held at Hull House. The hospitality of the settlement and the unflagging zeal of many of the settlement residents in the work of the league, have been no small factors in its vigorous growth and activity. For some time a wish has been expressed by some of the members to try whether a change of the meeting place to some more central location might be advisable. At the first meeting held in Federation Hall, downtown, it was voted to continue the permanent use of that place.

A recent enterprise of the league was an entertainment for the sick benefit fund. A dramatic performance with musical interludes was given by a number of students from the University of Chicago in Hull House Theatre. The piece chosen was *The Patriot*, the scene laid in colonial times with all the romantic atmosphere of those days, and set off by a spirited performance and ingeniously constructed scenic effects. The benefit fund is the most recent among the activities of the league and for America is emphasizing a side of unionism as yet little appreciated here, but whose importance has long been recognized in many countries. The Woman's Trade Union League, feeling that the health of the woman worker is her capital, has worked out a plan by which its members can at once and easily obtain medical advice for the weaknesses and slight illnesses which so often, if neglected, end in serious disease or complete breakdown. By paying in ten cents a year into the fund individually or through their unions the girls have the right to the advice of the league's physician at her office during certain hours in the evenings and on Sundays. The fund will also be increased by the profits of entertainments of which this is the first, and in other ways. Talks on health and hygiene will also be given as opportunity offers and the benefits committee have even larger plans in the background which will be developed as experience shows where the need most lies.

MAGISTRATES' COURTS IN NEW YORK

A bill for a commission to investigate the methods of procedure of and all mat-

ters concerning the police courts, the so-called "poor man's courts," in cities of the first class in New York state has been introduced in both the Senate¹ and Assembly.² This measure was recommended by Gov. Hughes in a special message sent to the Legislature April 9.

These courts stand to the poor and especially the large mass of the immigration population, as the visible manifestation of justice in America. Frequently it is from them and their contact with the police that our tenement population obtain their main conceptions as to what American government is and the extent of their influence may be appreciated when it is known that in New York city in 1907 the number of arraignments in the magistrates' courts including those brought before the Court of Special Sessions in the first division alone, comprising Manhattan and the Bronx, was 149,494, amounting to 5½ per cent of the population.

There can be no doubt of the need of a thorough study of the methods of procedure, such as is proposed. Owing to the lack of a proper system of records the action of the magistrates is determined at the present day largely by the memory or personal recollection of the officer upon the bridge or the probation officer in court, as to the previous record of the offender. The possibilities for oppression, error and corruption thus afforded are obvious. As a result of this defect our present system of treating minor offenders is little better than a farce. Women of the street are arrested, arraigned, fined and discharged, rearrested, and again fined, and this course is repeated endlessly throughout the year. Old offenders are one week sent to the workhouse by one magistrate; two weeks later, in the same court, rearrested for a similar offense, they are put on probation; and perhaps a week later they are again arrested and either fined or discharged. There is no proper system of classifying the offenses for which people are arraigned. Most of the women arrested for soliciting or street walking are arraigned under the charge of disorderly conduct, the same on which a

¹ Senate Bill Print—1234, Page.

² Assembly Bill Print—2,166, Francis.

man is arrested for creating a disturbance on the streets. The result is that the statistics of these courts do not disclose the real facts as to the prevalence of one offense or another. In addition, the system of record-keeping is so imperfect that it does not distinguish between the number of individuals arraigned and the total number of arraignments.

Owing to the conditions in these courts, important branches of the city and state governments find themselves seriously handicapped. Ex-Commissioner of Labor P. Tecumseh Sherman recently made the following statement in a public utterance: "The chief obstacle to the enforcement of the child labor laws in the city of New York is the magistrates' courts."

Police Commissioner Bingham has repeatedly stated in public that crime is bought and sold in New York city and that the Police Department finds most of its efforts in enforcing certain laws rendered abortive through the action of these courts. This is especially so with regard to the enforcement of the excise law and similar statutes. Officers of the Department of Education have stated again and again that they find it extremely difficult to enforce the truancy laws because of the procedure of the police magistrates. Private societies performing work of a public nature, find themselves blocked at almost every point by this situation. The Committee of Fourteen for the Suppression of the Raines Law Hotels has reached the conclusion that little can be accomplished in the direction of its work until a radical change in the conduct of the magistrates' courts and the Court of Special Sessions is brought about. Not only is the procedure of these courts seriously defective, but in the Court of Special Sessions cases are adjourned for periods of such great duration that the law is made practically of no effect.

The Public Education Association has recently stated that it finds its work seriously hampered in the enforcement of the truancy laws by the action of the magistrates. The Child Labor Committee has had similar experiences. The State Department of Labor not only has

been, but is at present seriously embarrassed in the enforcement of the labor laws by reason of this situation. Workers among the poor are unanimous in their belief that it is of paramount importance that there should be a radical change in the methods of these courts.

No comprehensive study of the procedure in courts of inferior criminal jurisdiction in the large cities of this state has ever been made. Legislation dealing with so important a matter should be had only after a thorough inquiry has been made and should rest upon a solid basis of information, such as can be supplied by an inquiry of this kind and in no other way.

The senate bill is now in the hands of the finance committee of which William W. Armstrong is chairman.

The Providence Fresh Air School

Walter E. Kruesi

Secretary of the Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis

Early in January of this year the school trustees of Providence, R. I., opened a special school for children suffering from tuberculosis, or classed as pre-disposed to this disease. Some of the children were from families in which there had been one or more cases of tuberculosis, and who had therefore been extraordinarily exposed, although they showed no definite signs of the disease.

This school differs from others only in that the air is kept absolutely fresh and at a low temperature, and the city provides a cup of soup for each child at 10 A. M. The children sit down at their desks with their hats, coats and mittens on, instead of hanging in the coat room. The room is heated by a large stove and the windows on the southern side are kept wide open. Some modification in the structure was made as illustrated by the photograph. Four windows were cut from about one foot above the floor to the ceiling. These are hinged at the top and are raised by a pulley so that this whole side is practically open. Although the school was opened during the severest part of a New England winter, it has not been necessary to close



RECESS AND REFRESHMENTS

these windows once during the school sessions.

The Providence Committee for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis provided warm gloves and bags of warm, thick quilting, in which the children put their legs. The bags reach over the back of the chairs and protect the children's backs. On the coldest days hot soapstones were placed in the bottoms of the bags to keep the feet warm. The children sit with their backs toward the open windows and the sun, and the little chair

and desk of each is attached to a separate platform, so that they may be moved in an arc to follow the sun through their large school room. An ordinary kitchen stove was installed by the school board, and this serves the double purpose of heating the soapstones and the broth lunch which is given to the children in the middle of the morning. This lunch is not prepared at the school, but is sent in from a catering establishment. It is of especially nutritive quality, and the cost, one dollar per gallon,



FRESH AIR SCHOOL AT PROVIDENCE

is met out of the ordinary school funds.

The medical attention includes weekly weighing and measuring and the visiting and supervision of the homes by the volunteer. The charts of weight and measure indicate slight increase in the measurements of several children, and no decrease, and encouraging increase in the weights of nearly all. Three children were shown to have lost a few ounces. Inasmuch as all of the measurements must be made in full attire, it is doubtful if this loss is actual. The record of the first six weeks showed an unusually high percentage of attendance, and that not one of these children, ordinarily prone to colds and coughs, had had either during this time.

Twenty-five children are accommodated in the school, and no more will be admitted; as this is the local limit for an ungraded school under a single teacher. If the value of this and the necessity of further facilities are proved, a second class or school can be organized. Question has already arisen as to the possible value and applicability of the idea to all of the schools, so that the aggregation of a few of the physically sub-normal will become unnecessary. Teachers will be interested to know that the children have made good progress in all their branches, and that even the written exercises show a high standard of excellence in spite of what might be feared from gloved or cold hands.

The school day is interrupted by twenty-minute recesses in the middle of the morning and afternoon, and by the usual noonday hour, during which the children go to their homes. The entire recess period must be spent out of doors, except during the most inclement weather. These children get a higher percentage of their recess than most, because there is no loss of time putting on and taking off their outer clothing.

This little school affords an incidental illustration of the value of the last meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, for it was there that members of the school board and of the local association received the inspiration for this work through the paper read by Dr. Lowman of Cleveland.

Pioneers and Heroes of American History¹

Reviewed by Sarah W. Moore

For any reader, and especially for the thousands of Italians who, without knowing the language or literature of America, have yet adopted it as their own country, the graphic pages of Louis Cavallaro's *Pioneers and Heroes of American History* must have an immense charm and interest. No such readable story of America in the Italian language has before appeared, and its adaptation to satisfy the manifest hunger for exactly the information given in so interesting a style is incontestable. It is a pity that the typography and binding are not more worthy of the contents. Illustrations also might well have made part of the volume, but so vivid is the word painting that they are hardly missed.

With an introductory sketch of the ideas prevailing during the Middle Ages as to the form of the earth, and as to the vague mystery and extent of *terra incognita* which yet lured Lief, son of Eric the Red, and Marco Polo to their great adventures, he begins with the story of Columbus and his day which is as freshly drawn as if told for the first time. Then follow lives of other great navigators,—the di Gama's simultaneous opening of a sea way to "Old Cathay," the Cabots again on the scent of America; Amerigo Vespucci, Ponce De Leon, Balboa, Magellan, Cortez, Pizarro, De Soto,—each biography marking a step forward in the history of the new world which was to become our home. With Verrazzano, the true discoverer of our Hudson, the Latin terminals cease, the names become English and Dutch—Drake, Raleigh, Smith, Hudson, the Pilgrims; the Puritans, Lord Baltimore, John Eliot, Peter Stuyvesant, the French group, Champlain, La Salle, etc., then Penn, Oglethorpe, the Colonial life, Franklin, Washington, the Revolution, and so forward among the great figures of the United States in formation and in re-formation.

¹ *Pionieri Ed Eroi Della Storia Americana*, by Luigi Cavallaro. Pp. 203. Price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

The thread of the story is continuous, sustained as it is on these over-mastering personalities whose characters always give a clue to what comes next. It is a procession, culminating in Lincoln, of the men who have brought things worth while to pass in their generation.

Chapter forty-two describes the United States of to-day; its growth, its enterprise, its industries, its opportunities, the good and bad effects of its immigration, the unwholesome congestion of its cities, the acres of virgin soil adapted for home-making, the resources and attractions of the interior, the national parks, the inventions of Howe, Bell, Edison; the public school compulsory system of education, free libraries and religious liberty. The appendix gives translations of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, the second inaugural of Lincoln; a list of the thirteen original states, of the names of the presidents, and the most important dates in our history as a nation.

A Sociological Study of the Negro¹

Reviewed by Helen A. Tucker

The Negro Races by Jerome Dowd is one of a series which the author "proposes to publish consisting of a sociological study of mankind from race standpoint." He has "begun with the Negro Races simply because they represent the most primitive life and not at all on account of any interest in the so-called Negro question," but he thinks a knowledge of sociological conditions of kindred populations in Africa would help in dealing with the Negro here. He seeks to portray and interpret the life of the Negritos, including the Pygmies, Bushmen, and Hottentots of Central and South Africa, the Negritians comprising the Mandingoes, Hausas, Ashantis, Dahomans, etc., of the Sudan and the Fellalabs "from the earliest times to the present, to show conditions which existed and still exist as an outcome of native surroundings and to note the changes which have taken

place in consequence of outside influences." With this in view he has collected a great deal of interesting material from the testimony of explorers and travelers and he gives a detailed description of each of these peoples with particulars as to their morals, habits, institutions, customs and state of culture. The races of the Sudan are considered by zones (the banana, millet, cattle and camel), those living in the latter showing a much higher development morally and mentally than those of the southern banana zone, and "it is easily demonstrable that the Negroes of Africa differ widely according to different environments in which they live without outside influences."

The "outside influences" which have affected the African Negro are of course largely civilization as represented by the white man and we are sorry to learn that while it has made "little change in the Negroes intellectually, it has made much morally and for the worse." They were made infinitely worse by the slave traders and in spite of individual examples of uplift the missionaries have left the great mass untouched. Some of the most common mistakes have been to give a literary instead of an industrial education; to overthrow, before giving anything adequate in their place, native customs and beliefs; to lay too much stress on creeds and ceremonies and not enough on character building; to teach contempt for native traditions, with a result that the converted natives are not in sympathy with their own race and are not trained to work intelligently. Mr. Dowd's study has led him to conclude that "there is a special evolution of race in accordance with the locality in which it has lived"; that if the African natives are to survive they must be developed as every civilized nation has been developed; that they must first have a transitional period which will do for them what slavery did for the Negroes in America; that they need now education in mechanical, industrial and agricultural arts by daily practice and experiment; that the changes introduced in their customs and beliefs should be gradual, and that these can best be accomplished through native leaders.

¹The Negro Races, by Jerome Dowd, Pp. 493. Price \$2.50. This book may be purchased at publisher's price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

Playgrounds, in Washington and Elsewhere

Jacob A. Riis

My mail will always keep me from growing old. For as growing old I identify the kind of petrification that comes to a man when he loses interest in the things that used to stir him. It isn't the years that count, it is the attitude of your mind toward the living things in the world—the things that move, if not always with giant strides straight toward the kingdom on earth, yet somehow, some way, by routes not down on the orthodox map perhaps, toward better things, toward the light. My mail draws for me an often very unorthodox map indeed, yet when I get over the gusts of occasional resentment at some particularly rank folly, I am able generally to make out the real if vagrant desire to serve that prompted it, and to hail the man brother. All except the fellow with the torch, who tells me that I "postpone the day of justice" by trying to help, who would have tenement house babes smother in dark unventilated rooms, and the slum extort its deadly toll of human life unmolested in order that some day a consuming fire of vengeance may sweep away the whole order of society that tolerated it. Him I loathe. He is a viper with whom no terms are to be made. If the slum bred him, it is time we were fighting it, indeed.

But his messages go into the wastebasket unread. I have learned to spot them at sight. They come regularly, especially from Cincinnati, but it is years since any of them has provoked my anger, for I haven't read them. The rest of the mail is so much more entertaining. Here came two letters in big envelopes the other day, peacefully together. One of them asked me to approve the plan for a league that was to make war upon the modern machinery which, according to the writer, was at the bottom of most of the world's miseries. We were to return to a state of innocence as it were, each working out his own

salvation with his own hands. The other asked me to join a league for the abolition of poverty and suffering of every kind, which could be readily done with the aid of the modern machinery that rendered it easy to satisfy everyone's needs at little expense. The temptation was strong to just shift the letters and send them back, to each the other's letter. But that would only have provoked a breach of the peace. They were in earnest, both of them. They were off the track, but they were groping for the brother's hand—and they sent return stamps, which gave them standing at once in a small but righteous band.

But I had no intention of joking when I sat down to write this, immediately after opening the morning's mail. Nothing was farther from my mind. There were three letters in it of the kind that oppose petrification. One was from a woman in Portland, Maine, who wrote that the school authorities of that normally sensible town were about to put the kindergartens out of the public schools because they cost too much, were a failure generally and because this particular fad no longer interested the world in general. That was the indictment. I don't know; the kindergarten may be a failure in Portland. It is possible, of course; though the Maine record is not ordinarily that of taking up a system of education and letting it go to seed in any such way. The story I told in a recent number of *CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS*, of how one Maine man, an ardent believer in kindergartens and their mission, regenerated the city of Helena, Montana, is very much more to the point. The suggestion contained in the argument that "the world has lost interest in the kindergarten," is rather that something has gone wrong with the school board up there. I shall not presume to say, for I have not all the facts. But I wrote to my correspondent that in one year—1906—the number of kinder-

gartens in New York's public schools increased from 491 to 549, and the city superintendent, Dr. Maxwell, says boldly in his report of that year: "We need, however, at least one thousand kindergartens to accommodate all the children between five and six years of age who ought to attend." So that New York at least does not subscribe to the supposed verdict of "the world in general." And I told her it must be some kind of municipal nightmare that has its grip on her town, from which it would presently wake up and wonder. Knowing Portland well, I am sure it will.

Then there was a letter from a friend in Seattle who had read what I wrote in these pages not long ago about the proposition to let no city be chartered in the state of Washington unless in its plan provision were made for the children's play. He sent me the bill with that purpose that was passed by the legislature, and here it is:

No plat of an addition to a city of the first or second class, or other city having a special charter, with sufficient population to authorize it to incorporate under the general incorporation laws as a city of the first or second class, shall be filed, accepted or approved, unless a plot or plots of ground not less than one-tenth of the area of the blocks therein platted, exclusive of the land set apart for streets and alleys, be dedicated to the public use as a park or common, or for parks or commons, and placed under the control of the city authorities for such use forever.

The Chamber of Commerce approved the bill, both houses passed it, everybody agreeing that the landowner would receive his fair return in the increased value of the other nine-tenths of the property, but the governor vetoed the bill upon the assumption that it was unconstitutional, a question which its projectors had decided to leave to the courts, if brought up there by landowners.

This coming hard upon the bill introduced in the present session of the legislature of Massachusetts requiring every town in that state with a population of over ten thousand to establish at least one children's playground at the public expense and maintain it, creating for the purpose a playground committee of three of which the superintendent of schools

and a member of the school committee shall be a majority, was interesting you will own. And though the governor in the western state vetoed their bill, there is another legislature coming, my correspondent writes hopefully. And so there is. The sun and the blue sky are always behind the clouds, even in Seattle where it sometimes rains weeks at a time, in winter. It is that kind of faith that wins victories.

There is a kind of providence that watches over the order in which I take up my letters, I am persuaded. In this case, for instance, that western letter braced me for the third, which was from Washington, D. C., telling me that Congress had refused to vote money for the supervision of playgrounds there. A copy of the *Congressional Record* accompanied it, giving the details of the discussion in the House. The latter I read with astonishment, I must confess. It seems strange to have a member of Congress say such things as this:

We provide the school children of this city with free text books, free writing tablets, free pencils, free ink, free material for sewing schools, cooking schools, in fact we keep the spoon of governmental pab in their mouths from the beginning of the school year to the end of it, furnishing everything except food and clothing.

These, according to the *Record* were the words of Congressman Burleson of Texas; and Mr. Gardner of Michigan is credited with saying:

It is the old story of beginning an enterprise on the part of the benevolent and well-minded people, giving it a start and then letting hands go. . . . It has become a standard order of things to start an enterprise and then let the government take hold of it and carry it on, and this is one of these cases, and the committee felt it was time to call a halt.

It is difficult to resist the temptation to inform Mr. Burleson of Texas that every city in the land with due care for the citizenship that is growing up in its public schools furnishes its children with the things he enumerates free, and counts it a duty and plain justice to itself, and that any one of them would gladly furnish both food and clothing in addition, on proof that either or both were needed in any case, without a

thought of it being "governmental pap." It is even more to be regretted that a special invitation could not have been extended to Representative Gardner of Michigan to attend the playground dinner in this city last week; for then he would have learned from Mr. deForest's speech that the wise plan of the Russell Sage Foundation is to help set going benevolent enterprises such as playground associations, and then leave them to their own resources, just because their proper function is to start the work, prove its reasonableness and then incorporate it in the public program and budget, as the kindergarten has been incorporated upon the public schools, and practically every other great beneficent innovation upon the old ways, in like manner. It is hard to let the chance pass to argue these things, surprising as it is that argument should be needed. But the point at issue is more important, and it happens that we here in New York are able to shed light upon it which congress needs.

"We have furnished the playgrounds," said Mr. Vreeland of New York, we have given the boys a chance to play. Now let them go and play."

Had Mr. Vreeland attended the dinner I spoke of, he would have heard from no less an authority than Dr. Maxwell, superintendent of our schools, what happened when we did that here. We bought and equipped, at a cost of millions, children's parks and playgrounds on the East Side, because at last we understood that to give a child his play was fundamental justice to him and to the state of which he is to be a citizen. We understood that, playing, the child grows character, and that therefore there is nothing in the whole range of schooling that is as "educational." So we spent our millions and laid out the parks and then, though the school department alone spent nearly \$300,000 last year for maintenance and supervision, including \$10,000 for brass bands in the playgrounds, we had a fit of economy and neglected to properly oversee and manage these small park playgrounds. And what happened? They became the resorts of tramps, not

only, but of thieves who got their grip on the children there. Dr. Maxwell said that some of them had become schools for thieves instead of schools for citizenship as was intended—and all for the want of a little supervision. I do not know how it may be in the country, but I know this that you cannot turn city children loose to play in a tenement environment where "all the influences make for unrighteousness," without having the tough and the thief come in where he is not wanted. Hence it is the very parody upon common sense to appropriate money for playgrounds and refuse it for supervision. That is, indeed, saving at the spigot and wasting at the bung-hole. If play is a process of education it must be directed into safe channels, by which I do not mean that children should not be left to their own healthy initiative. They should. I was delighted to see the president giving the mothers' congress that advice. But note the word "healthy." Conditions in congested parts of the modern city are not healthy, and Washington is by no means exempt from that characterization. It has some slums as bad as are found anywhere in the land, and some that are worse.

We in New York shall have to deal with the conditions which our neglect, or parsimony, or both, have caused, and that promptly. For we have no intention of either letting our playgrounds be perverted to the use of the evil one so early in the game, or else of hiding behind the plea that playgrounds are a failure. They were never so much of a success as today, and the success will be greater because of our seeing where we have gone wrong. Congress has full authority in Washington. It is at once legislature, common council and all the rest, and upon it rests the responsibility. Will it set a paltry five or ten thousand dollars against the moral health of the children in the national capital? And, once it has recognized the justice of the claim by appropriating money for playgrounds, what right has Congress to ask that private beneficence shall pay for keeping them running? As well build the schools and demand that a benevolent

public shall pay the teachers' salaries. There is no difference.

"We have furnished the playgrounds; now let them go and play." Not in a long time has my mail brought as definite a challenge as that. As an officer of the Playgrounds Association of America, if but an honorary one, I accept the challenge, and respectfully call upon Congress to send for City Superintendent William H. Maxwell of New York's public schools, and for District Superintendent Julia Richman of his staff, to tell them why city playgrounds should be

supervised. If other witnesses on that point are desired, I shall be prepared to furnish them, both from my own city and from Boston, and I can promise that their testimony will be entirely convincing. It was but yesterday that the assistant in charge of a great mission house told me of three men sent to jail for assault upon little girls in one playground near his charge on the East Side. I am glad of an opportunity to let all the facts be known. While we are about this, let us make a clean job of it.

Child Labor and Social Progress

A. J. McKelway

Secretary of the National Child Labor Committee for the Southern States

The National Child Labor Committee met in its fourth annual session in Atlanta, by invitation of the Georgia Child Labor Committee. The Atlanta Chamber of Commerce and the City Council heartily seconded the invitation. There was an undercurrent of hostility, due to the very purposes for which the committee was organized, but this only increased the determination of others to show courtesy and hospitality. Receptions were given by the Woman's Club, the Council of Jewish Women, by Mrs. Warren Boyd, of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, and by Governor Hoke Smith. The citizens of Atlanta tendered a banquet to the visitors, as a formal welcome to the city, on Thursday night, April 2, at which notable addresses were made by General Clifford L. Anderson, chairman of the Georgia Child Labor Committee; Hooper Alexander, of the Georgia Legislature; Mayor Joyner; Asa G. Candler, president of the Chamber of Commerce; Mrs. Hamilton Douglas, speaking as a representative of the Women's Clubs, and M. C. W. Bernhardt, representing organized labor. Dr. Felix Adler responded in behalf of the committee. The morning and afternoon sessions were held at the auditorium of the Piedmont Hotel, which was well filled. The evening meetings and the final session Sunday afternoon convened at the Grand

Opera House, where the attendance was smaller than had been hoped for, owing probably to special services that were being held by the churches of the three leading denominations.

The members of the National Committee attending the meeting were: Felix Adler, chairman; Samuel McCune Lindsay, vice-chairman; Owen R. Lovejoy, general secretary; Everett W. Lord, secretary for the New England states; E. N. Clopper, secretary for the Ohio Valley states; A. J. McKelway, secretary for the Southern states; Edward T. Devine, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Chancellor James H. Kirkland, Dr. C. B. Wilmer, Governor Hoke Smith, and E. W. Frost. A letter of regret at his inability to attend was sent by ex-President Cleveland, saying: "I hope it is not necessary for me to assure you that I am greatly interested in the purposes of the organization, and earnestly hope it may reach the stage of the greatest usefulness and prove a blessing to those who must hereafter bear the burden of our citizenship."

The first discussion, on the question "What is a Good Child Labor Law?" indicated progress. The need of placing the principle of child-protection upon the statute books is no longer to be considered, but the duty of securing advanced and effective legislation. Since the last

annual meeting, Florida and Mississippi have passed child labor laws, so that there are now no Southern states without them; and only one state in the union, Nevada. The secretary for the southern states was able to report in addition amended laws in Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Alabama, with the prospect of a model child labor law for Oklahoma in accordance with the mandate of its constitution. Since the organization of the committee, four years ago, thirty-four states have amended these laws in the right direction or have enacted them for the first time,—eighteen states in the legislative session of 1907-8. There was a tone of hopefulness and of determination after constructive work in all the addresses made. Especially was this feature marked at the afternoon session of Friday, under the topic, Child Labor and Education. George F. Milton, of Knoxville, Tennessee, had an admirable paper on Compulsory Education in the South. He was frank in giving the facts as to illiteracy in the South, his paper bristling with such statements as these:

In 1900, 27.5 per cent of all the illiterate white voters were in the southern states, with only 14.9 per cent of the white voters to be found here. . . . In Tennessee, in spite of the reduction of the percentage of illiterates in the last three decades, the actual number of white illiterates of voting age has increased from 37,713 in 1870 to 52,418 in 1900. The scholastic population of Tennessee in 1905 was 762,894. Enrollment in the public schools, 537,000. But the average attendance was only 348,000. . . . In some quarters, where there is a large Negro population, the cost of compulsory education is urged as an objection. But it would seem that as the Negro is to be here, he ought to have the best sort of training. The Negro child, as does the white child, needs not only the technical instruction in letters, but more, he needs the discipline and character-forming influences of the schools. . . . The question you have met here to consider is bound with that of education. As the mill doors close on the child, the school doors should open. The same humanitarian spirit which would protect the boy or girl from the destructive influences of labor at an immature age, should be directed to securing the attendance of that child in school.

With this introduction, Owen R. Lovejoy followed with a paper on The Function of Education in Abolishing Child

Labor. Taking a more national view of the subject he showed from the reports of the Department of Education that fifty per cent of all public school pupils were in the first and second grades. Out of the army of 20,000,000 children attending the public schools this year, there will be at least 5,000,000 deserters before the roll can be called at the beginning of next year. For every one of these deserters, going into an occupation that has any advantage for the employe, four enter a cotton mill or become messengers or cash girls. Many of these children would be in school if the school promised preparation for some life pursuit. The need of practical education is therefore obvious, and is being gradually recognized. In 1890 only thirty-seven city school systems reported as having manual training. In 1906 there were 510. It has been said that all our training today is a training for consumption, and if that be true it is a most unintelligent training. Every worker during his vocational training should have an opportunity to learn something of the demands and conditions of labor in other industries. What is required is not that our public schools shall be called into requisition to train experts in single specialized trades, in order to lift the burden of expense from the employer, but that they shall become so alert and well developed as to be fitted for a choice of several opportunities. . . . The manufacturer doubts the efficiency of labor thus trained. Organized labor fears that the public trade school will flood the labor market and increase the sharpness of competition for work. But as Robert A. Woods has observed: "It is inconceivable that as a class, school trained workmen should not be even more jealous than others of all unreasonable encroachments upon their wage standard, and that they should not apply their additional training to the development of even more effective forms of labor organizations than now exist." . . . Mr. Lovejoy stated that the National Child Labor Committee is content with no partial program for the elimination of child labor. Prohibitive legislation and com-

pulsory elementary education open the door to opportunity for youth, but the education must be of such a character as to help the child by its attraction and lead him into such fields of skilled labor that in the education of his own children compulsion will cease to be necessary.

Rev. E. A. Seddon, told of his recent investigations in the mill villages of Mississippi and South Carolina. In the former state, fifty per cent of the mill children were found to be illiterate and about the same proportion in South Carolina. Often the mill managers were found to be ignorant of the facts as to the illiteracy of their employes. There was found to be a large disproportion between the school enrollment and the school attendance. Mr. Seddon was followed by Lewis W. Parker, who was introduced as a "humane, enlightened and far-seeing manufacturer, from South Carolina." He said that he would not minimize the evil of child labor, though he deplored the tendency to exaggeration of the actual conditions, by the National Committee and its servants. He objected to any such legislation as would appear to be aimed at the manufacturers, or the cotton mill manufacturers as a class. He believed that compulsory education was the true solution of the child labor problem and that what South Carolina needed more than child labor legislation was compulsory education, birth registration and a marriage license law. He claimed that the South Carolina manufacturers had been advocating these measures along with the child labor law before the state or national committees on the subject had come into existence. He argued, from the census bulletins on manufactures that child labor in South Carolina was rapidly decreasing and spoke of the welfare work that was being carried on successfully by many cotton mills (of which, by the way, some of Mr. Parker's mills are the most conspicuous examples). He also quoted from some more recent school statistics to prove that the school enrollment in the mill counties in South Carolina was greater than in the rural counties.

The annual address was delivered by

the chairman, Dr. Felix Adler, on Friday evening. No attempt will be made to give a synopsis of this address, on the Anti-Child Labor Movement in the Idea of American Civilization. It must be read in full to be appreciated. Professor Henderson had an important theme, The Social Cost of Accident, Ignorance and Exhaustion. The secretary for the southern states read a paper on the Leadership of the Child, showing how, in the process of evolution, the helplessness of the child had created motherhood and fatherhood, how the prolongation of the period of childhood had helped to establish all social laws, how the child labor system cut across this beneficent tendency, and how the renewed consideration of the child had led in the South, in recent years, to many advances in social progress.

Saturday morning there was an interesting discussion of the problems of factory inspection, led by E. W. Frost, of Wisconsin. Chief Inspector Morgan of Ohio and Miss Jean Gordon of Louisiana spoke, and the discussion was enlivened by comment from Mr. Frost, Mrs. Kelley, Dr. Devine, Martin A. Marks, a Cleveland manufacturer, and Nathaniel A. Bacon of Rhode Island. Mr. Fred. S. Hall's paper on the Scholarship System also created a lively interchange of views.

E. N. Clopper's discussion of the employment of children in street trades in Cincinnati gave an interesting glimpse into the life of newsboys and some of the modern work that is being done for their education and happiness. There are 900 newsboys in Cincinnati, he said, and for the benefit of these a Newsboys' Protective association has been established by means of which the boys have the advantages of club libraries, baths and reading rooms. Only about five per cent of them, he said, are out of school illegally.

Everett W. Lord, secretary of the child labor committee for the New England states, read a paper on the present status of child labor in his section. The gospel of work, he intimated, had perhaps been overworked in the Puritan corner of America.

We have held steadfastly to the maxim that Satan still finds work for idle hands to do, but accepted rather grudgingly the truth that all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy. It is doubtless to this inherent dread of idleness on the New Englander's part that such abuses of child labor as do exist there are traceable.

At the same time he pointed out the fact that long years ago the New England states had taken the question vigorously into hand, and then he showed the great progress that has been made in making the minimum age limit of children who may work in factories, fourteen years, and in the requirements of compulsory education. He dwelt on the need of industrial, or vocational, education for children who will likely follow trades of one kind or another, and showed that, for these purely literary training is not adequate or practicable.

Saturday evening, the speakers were Mrs. Florence Kelley, Edward T. Devine, Mrs. A. O. Granger and Samuel McCune Lindsay. Mrs. Kelley showed the Consumer's Responsibility for Child Labor. She traced the progress of the Consumers' League movement, from its inception to the present awakening of the public conscience as to the conditions under which goods are manufactured, transported and sold. An encouraging report was made of the change in New York city with regard to Christmas shopping, and the employment of women and children after the regular hours. Mr. Devine spoke on The New View of the Child.

Mrs. A. O. Granger, formerly chairman of the Child Labor Committee of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, and active in the advancement of the cause of the children in Georgia, read an interesting paper on the work of the Women's Clubs in Child Labor Reform. Dr. Lindsay discussed the Scope of National and State Regulation of Child Labor. He developed the idea that there might not only be regulation by the different states, but by states grouped together by industrial circumstances, so as to prevent the competition within these groups of the states with less advanced communities. He believed, however, that the national government, through its control over interstate commerce, which

extended to the very conditions of manufacture for the purposes of interstate commerce, had the right and therefore the duty of fixing a minimum age limit for the employment of children in industries, where the products were shipped into other states. Of course authority of the national government was absolute in the District of Columbia, as yet without a child labor law, and in the territories and dependencies of the nation.

The best tribute to the program of Sunday afternoon, on the Ethical and Religious Aspects of the Child Labor Problem, was the fact that a large audience listened for three hours to the addresses that were made, by Chancellor Kirkland, of Vanderbilt University; by Governor Hoke Smith, who spoke of the duty of the people in child-protection, the power of public sentiment, and the responsibility of the individual to use his influence in behalf of the cause; by Miss Jean Gordon, on the Church and Child Labor Reform; by Miss Kate Barnard, on What the New State is Doing for the Children, and by Dr. J. W. Stagg, of Birmingham, on the Psychology of the Child. To the audience, the most interesting of these addresses was Miss Barnard's. She spoke of what had already been accomplished in Oklahoma for a model penal system, juvenile court bills, and compulsory education measures.

The fourth annual meeting closed with the adoption of the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the national child labor committee, in convention assembled, has heard with pleasure of the great work the governor and legislature of Oklahoma are doing for the protection of the children, and hopes that the legislation now pending will be adopted and that other states will emulate her example.

Resolved, That we hereby endorse the District of Columbia child labor bill now pending in congress, and urge its passage for the protection of the children at our national capital.

Resolved, That the thanks of the committee and its guests and friends are hereby tendered to the people of Atlanta, for their abounding hospitality; to the governor of Georgia, for the delightful reception tendered us; to individuals and clubs, too numerous to mention, for courtesies extended, and to the three daily newspapers for the space freely given to the reports of the meeting and their unanimous advocacy of our cause.

Civic Improvement

Charles Mulford Robinson, Department Editor

Rose Planting in Portland, Ore.—Baltimore's Civic Center—Garden Contest in Salem, Mass.—The Cow as a City Planner—Playgrounds in Cincinnati

THE CITY OF ROSES

In Portland, Ore., Washington's birthday was celebrated "under a clear sky and a June-like sun" by the planting of five thousand rose bushes by school children. The roses were set out on public grounds, and the occasion was marked by addresses by the governor and the mayor, and by the presence of thousands of school children, citizens and visitors. Very likely, as a celebration of Washington's birthday, the occasion was unique. Significant of the event is the fact that Portland has determined to be the rose city. Already miles of residential streets are beautiful with roses on the strip of grass between walk and curb, and in Portland roses bloom all the year round.

TO PRESERVE THE FORESTS

Though the preservation of the national forests is not directly a civic improvement problem, mention can perhaps be made with propriety in this department of the very strong bulletin which has been prepared by Henry A. Barker, chairman of the American Civic Association's special committee on national forests. Mr. Barker, as the father of the metropolitan park movement in Providence, had already established a reputation for thoroughness, energy and tirelessness; and the present bulletin—or "clipping sheet"—is a testimony to those qualities. The matter could hardly be presented to the people and to Congress more forcibly, nor could its significance to the nation at large be more strikingly depicted.

BALTIMORE'S CIVIC CENTER

Now there is talk of a great civic center for Baltimore. The Municipal Art Society and the Merchants and Manufacturers' Association recently co-operated to have John M. Carrère, Arnold W. Brunner and Frederick L. Olmsted visit the city to pass upon the tentative plan that had been prepared by two local men, Col. Sherlock Swann and Josias Pennington. The plan is very elaborate, and it is said that the experts will not greatly change it. It involves the city's purchase of a good deal of valuable land; but the city, looking forward to carrying out the scheme, has gone to the legislature for permission to purchase more land than is actually needed for the improvement, so that it may partially reimburse itself by

the resale of abutting sites at the enhanced value which the improvement will bestow. This is a permission that Philadelphia and cities of Ohio already have, and that has been earnestly advocated for New York. It is the plan that finances the great municipal improvements of Europe and South America.

OLD SOCIETY'S NEW PURPOSE

"Ye Village Improvement Society of New York," which is said to have been organized in 1660, has been formally reorganized in this year of grace. One of its earliest acts after its revival was to address a letter to the mayor, the board of aldermen, and the building departments of Greater New York, protesting against the use of "pulley line clothes poles" in connection with tenements. Though reinforced by the fire danger connected with this common device, the protest—which is certainly novel in improvement annals—was made mainly on the ground of appearances. The letter, declaring the custom "primitive" and "make-shift," says the "ungainly poles, from which radiate a network of pulley lines, often hung with a nondescript assortment of the family wash, rugs, and clothing, are unsightly, and unsanitary," and it asks, since substitutes are available, that an ordinance be passed prohibiting their further erection and condemning those now in use. What a changed New York it would be, and how we should miss the million families' fluttering wash.

A GARDEN CONTEST

The circular of the Civic League of Salem (Mass.), announcing the terms of its home and school garden contest for 1908 has come to this department. The league offers \$150 in thirty-three prizes and twenty-one gratuities, and some special prizes besides—a decided increase over last year. The prizes offered are for the greatest improvement shown, in back yards or front yards or, especially, in a combination of both; and the gardens may be all flowers, or all vegetables, or both flowers and vegetables as the contestant elects. Further, as improvement is what especially counts, the cleaning up of yards will do much to win a prize. The contest is open to any resident of Salem, but the interest of the children is especially desired, and where a successful contestant is under ten years of age a prize of fifty cents will be given in every case, since most of

the more important prizes are books or tools, which would not be as welcome to a small child. The committee will visit each garden from time to time during the season. It has seemed worth while to note here with some care the terms of this contest, because of their general suggestiveness.

COWS VERSUS ENGINEERS

The American Civic Association has issued in leaflet form a letter which was written by Mrs. McCrea, the chairman of its railroad department, to a woman in the South, who had asked some question in regard to the street development of the town in which she lives. There is so much sound advice in the letter that the association was well justified in printing it. Mrs. McCrea says, in part, "Most earnestly I plead for the preservation of the natural picturesqueness of your town. Do not allow the idea of the city engineers to imperil this. With all due respect to engineers, they are straight-line people, and as a class have very little natural appreciation for the artistic. The fact is, many towns are situated where checker-board streets are seemingly a necessity; but, where you have been so blessed as to have your streets laid out on graceful lines, preserving the natural picturesqueness of the situation, I would fight to the death before I would allow the situation to be changed, were I a resident." Winding streets and beautiful trees, she says, are a legacy, belonging not to the people who live in the town now, but to their children and children's children, and you "have no right to sacrifice them to an individual opinion." She adds that she would rather trust a cow to make graceful lines than a city engineer (!). "Have you ever noticed a cow-path in the country?", she asks. "It is always graceful."

RESULTS IN ST. LOUIS

The city planning number of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS contained a review of the very remarkable city improvement report which was issued a year ago by the Civic League of St. Louis. The achievement was one of which few organizations would be capable, and of which any might be proud. There may now be added to that review the statement that the league has secured the legislation for carrying its recommendations into effect, and that it is already actively engaged in developing neighborhood civic centers. The league is one that does things, as is shown by the following extracts from a letter: "It drafted and secured the passage of an ordinance creating the office of city forester, providing also for the planting, culture and preservation of shade trees and shrubbery. It operated and maintained free public baths, until these were operated by the city. It established and maintained a vacation school in the Jefferson School build-

ing, until the Board of Education took charge of this one and of another as well." To start good things, to prove their worth, and to set the standard for their conduct; and then to turn these over to the proper official body, leaving private enterprise free to meet another need, is one of the wisest and most beneficent lines of action that a civic organization can undertake.

THE CHILDREN'S PETITION

The forestry service of the government has recently received a petition, said to be unique in the history of the service. It comes from a town in California, prays for the establishment of a redwood national park, and is signed by 1,400 school children. The words of the petition are worth quoting, for their personal character:

"We, the children of Eureka schools, have been studying about our redwood forests, and, along with the rest of the people of our country, feel that representative groves of these trees should be preserved for ourselves and coming generations of children, and we respectfully petition the United States government to take some action toward establishing a natural forest of redwoods."

In Rochester, N. Y., a petition for a playground signed by some eleven hundred children, was sent to the city authorities last year, and it is said that not the least interesting, though an irrelevant, feature of it was its showing of the improvement in penmanship as one advanced from grade to grade. There is this to be said in favor of allowing children to sign petitions on public matters, assuming that pains are taken to have the children understand the matter: They learn thus, the connection between public action and the expression of public sentiment, and the responsibility that rests on individuals.

PARKS AND PLAYGROUNDS

There has been some criticism of the park plans recently made by George E. Kessler, for Cincinnati, the ground of the criticism being the fact that the plans—otherwise most liberal and ambitious—offered little in the way of playgrounds. Mr. Kessler is now said to have made a statement on the subject, which is interesting not only as a reply to the specific charge, but for its bearing on the general theory of park development. For Mr. Kessler, it must be remembered, is at present one of the most active park planners in the United States. He is reported to have said: "A park system is essentially a scheme for the beautifying of a city and for recreation along other lines than play or sport. The development of the body is as much a part of an educational system as is the development of the mind and character, and all should be under one head.

Now, this suggests that the best possible place for a playground is in connection with a school house. It is the schoolhouse that children are best acquainted with, next to their homes. It is to the school house that they go and where they congregate and stay much of their time. How natural, then, that in connection with every school there should be adequate playgrounds. I understand there is a movement here in the Board of Education to secure additional property near school houses and that money has been appropriated or proceedings started for appropriation. This is the wise thing to do. A playground does not belong to a park system any more than does a school house."

TREES AND WIRES

Park and Cemetery has lately printed a symposium on how to safeguard the street trees when they come in contact with public service wires strung along the highways. Charles A. Whittet, superintendent of parks in Lowell, says that no wire company there is allowed to cut or trim the trees. They are wholly in charge of the park commission. A penalty of \$20 is levied for each offense in trimming. "Where it is necessary to run wires through trees, they have to be covered with wooden tubes." In Connecticut, no cutting or pruning of street trees for wires can be done without the sanction of the tree warden which each town is required by state law to elect. G. A. Parker, superintendent of the parks at Hartford, says: "On account of the wires, trolley poles, and other street appliances which modern conditions require, I most earnestly advocate the planting of street trees next to the property line and not next to the curb line. This does away with a great deal of trimming of trees and injury to them. It also gives the roots a better feeding ground." C. M. Loring of Minneapolis, says that the park board there "had every man arrested who trimmed a tree without a permit and the court inflicted a good big fine and a promise of imprisonment if the culprit came a second time. Now, if a tree interferes with the wires, a permit is applied for, which is referred to the committee on street trees, and if the tree can be trimmed without injuring it the permit is granted, if not, the company takes some other means of overcoming the difficulty. Usually this is by stringing a cable instead of a number of single wires."

A BEAUTIFUL MEMORIAL

The annual report of the trustee who, under the wills of Richard and Sarah A.

Smith, is responsible for the conduct of the children's playhouse and playground in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, is of interest. This is not so much for its statement of the endless pleasure they are giving, as for its suggestion of the loveliness of such a private benefaction. The playhouse and playground for little children were a good deal of a novelty in the United States when these were established, in 1899. They have now, happily, become a familiar feature of our parks, and of social work in cities. But, almost without exception, they are established by the municipality, or by the collective action of a good many persons. This is best, of course. And yet, as there are not half as many of them as there ought to be, it would be very well if private munificence, appreciating the benefit of such a gift, would supplement through individual generosity what the community as a whole has been able to do. The house and grounds which the Smith bequests constructed and maintain, have not been closed a single day since they were opened—in 1899. Meanwhile, more than 700,000 little children have had pleasure in them. On stormy days the house will shelter 2,000 persons; but, all the time it is attractive with its amusements and games, its songs and books, its hammocks and rocking horses. There is even a trained nurse, with hospital equipment to treat childish bruises, real and imaginary; and so well does she fill her rôle that for only four cases has a physician been required. Outside the house there is a wading pool, and there are whole rows of swings and teters and such delights, and twelve tons of white dry sand are in a pavilion, to be wondrously wrought by baby hands.

TOWN-PLANNING

"The Relation of Town-Planning to the National Life," a paper read at a conference in Wolverhampton, England, by Mr. T. C. Horsfall, M. A., reviews intelligently the advantages of preparing a comprehensive plan in advance of the settlement of a section of a town or city. Mr. Horsfall announces that the English government has promised to bring in a town-planning bill at this session and he expresses the hope that it will correspond with the Swedish town-planning act which was passed in 1874, and from which he quotes the following section: "For every town there shall be prepared a plan for the regulation of its general arrangement and of the building within it. The plan shall regulate not only the buildings, but the streets, markets, and other public places." He refers in closing to similar acts in other European countries.

Organized Charity

Francis H. McLean, Department Editor

Schenectady's Organization Adopts a Constitution—Nationalities and Dependency—Novel Housing Plan in Indianapolis—Buffalo Society's Year Book

SCHENECTADY'S ASSOCIATION

An interesting form of organization is the Schenectady (N. Y.), Charities Association, which began work in March, 1908. It is a branch of the State Charities Aid Association, and constitutes the Schenectady County Committee of this association. According to the constitution adopted at the meeting held recently for organization, the objects are stated to be:

To endeavor to improve the mental, moral and physical condition of all persons supported in whole or in part by public or private charity in the county of Schenectady.

To aid in securing the adoption of such measures in the care and training of dependent children as shall speedily restore them to the normal life of the community.

To take such measures as may from time to time be found advisable for the prevention of the spread of tuberculosis and for the protection of the public health.

To induce the adoption by the community of such measures in the organization and administration of both public and private charity as may improve the condition of the poor.

The management of the society is vested in an executive committee, consisting of the officers and the chairmen of standing committees, and most of the active work will be carried on by four standing committees, on city and county charitable institutions, children, the prevention of tuberculosis, and the organization of charity.

Schenectady is a city of upwards of 70,000 population, a city which has grown so rapidly as to outgrow its charitable agencies.

While the new association is in very large measure, a self governed and self sustaining organization, its connection with the State Charities Aid Association will keep it in touch with the most progressive charitable work throughout the state, and should be of very great assistance to the local work

NATIONALITIES AND DEPENDENCY

In far away Hawaii there has been an Associated Charities since 1899. The report of the society for the year ending December 31, 1907, announces the creation of a committee to investigate and report upon the causes and cure of pauperism. One of its objects is "to ascertain whether there is such a thing as a race predisposition to pauperism." Considering the cosmopolitan

population of the island this committee's report will be of considerable importance. All the national societies are in close co-operation with the associated charities and are represented upon the committee which includes members of the native royal family. The manager reports that fifteen nationalities are represented in its records: Portuguese, Porto Rican, Hawaiian, American, British, Spanish, German, Chinese, French, Swedish, Russian, East Indian, Hebrew and Negro.

AUGUSTA (GA.) SCHOOL HOME

One of the most interesting places visited by the field secretary in his recent southern trip was the School Home in Augusta, Georgia. Primarily the home was started for the domestic science work of a public school in a mill district. When the plans were projected it was realized that there was not room for the work in the school building itself, so a cottage near by was rented and fitted up. Now that a pretentious new school building is nearing completion, the old building is to be abandoned, but the school home is not to be absorbed by the edifice that succeeds it, because the school home, borrowing some settlement features, appears to be a far superior place of training to the most elaborate school rooms. The cottage has a parlor, dining room and sitting room, all prettily and restfully, yet cheaply furnished. The lesson which America as a whole has yet to learn that pretty homes do not necessarily mean costly homes, is taught by example. The care of a whole house, excepting the bedrooms, can all be demonstrated here. The kitchen is well stocked with convenient labor saving devices. The sewing classes meet in the dining and sitting rooms before and after the mid-day meals. Mothers' meetings similar to those held in settlements are a feature of the home. The whole plan is admirably worked out. It seems to combine the best features of the domestic science work of schools and settlements.

COLUMBUS (GA.) ORGANIZES

Columbus, Georgia, a city of 25,000, with 10,000 living in suburbs, is one of the most progressive cities in the South. Its system of industrial education in the public schools is excellent and includes definite training in trades in which there are openings in the

city's industries. Social welfare work has begun in some of the mills and many of the neighborhoods where factory workers live are models. The houses are not as ugly as architects devoid of art and contractors devoid of imagination, can make them. They really look like homes with private grounds, running water and refreshing greenness everywhere. Columbus's streets are half park, half street. It is not surprising then, that Columbus has taken hold of the associated charities plan and has organized a society, whose program is laid out upon the most progressive lines. The leaders are determined to attack wrongs as they arise, and the installment furniture business strikes them as an existing evil that calls for reform.

Among their other projects are thorough registration, investigation, treatment; efficient inspection of the milk supply to avert a recurrence of the epidemic of last year's summer sickness among infants; meat inspection, enforcement of vagrancy laws, and home collection of small savings. Heading the society is Professor C. B. Gibson, superintendent of schools, to whom the city is indebted for its public industrial school system. The officers are: President, C. B. Gibson; vice-presidents, Dr. J. P. McFerrin, Rev. S. Alston Wragg, Dr. M. Ashby Jones, Dr. I. S. McElroy, Dr. F. Rosenthal. The other members of the board are: C. Gunby Jordan, Rhodes Browne, J. T. Cooper, F. V. Garrad, T. S. Methvin, L. H. Chappell, George J. Burrus, Leo Loewenherz, George Y. Banks, James J. Gilbert, J. A. Kirvin, E. Phillips, H. Sternberg, George B. Whiteside, S. P. Gilbert, A. C. Chancellor, F. J. Dudley, John F. Flournoy.

This finance committee has been appointed to arrange for a personal canvass for funds by the members of the board: E. P. Dis-mukes, chairman; J. A. Kirvin, H. Sternberg, L. A. Camp, F. J. Dudley.

APPOINTMENTS IN BALTIMORE

The growth of the Charity Organization Society and the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor in Baltimore, which was greatly accelerated four years ago by the union of the two organizations under the name of the Federated Charities, has led to an important and inevitable reorganization which went on the first of the year. The office of district secretary has been created, with Miss Elizabeth Brown, who for seven years has been agent in the eastern district, as the first incumbent. Her duties are those which in other cities belong to supervisors of agents or superintendents of districts. The federation of the two societies made necessary the setting apart of one experienced and efficient worker whose business would be to unify and standardize the eleven districts into which the city as a whole is divided. As the joint registration bureau at the central office building is the clearing house of all the districts, her

office will be in the bureau, and, in the interest of complete co-operation, the responsibility for the management of the bureau through the necessary clerks will devolve upon the district secretary.

The finance department of the Federated Charities has been reorganized and enlarged into what is called the extension department, and Miss Janet E. Kemp, whose investigation of housing conditions in Baltimore and Washington are familiar to readers of this magazine, is to be the secretary in charge. Her duties will be those of a financial secretary acting under the direction of a joint finance committee, and much more. With the necessary clerical help she will carry forward to completion a "follow-up system," at which a beginning has already been made, similar in kind to that which is successfully in operation in the Washington Associated Charities. She will also inaugurate an educational campaign for the extension not only of the list of supporters of the Federated Charities, but of the ideals and methods for which the organization stands. This will be done by private interviews, public addresses, and stereopticon exhibits, and any and every legitimate means to the end that the city may be saturated with the spirit and purpose which kindle the enthusiasm of all who are already initiated into the world of sound philanthropy.

A NOVEL INDIANAPOLIS PLAN

In January, 1907, the Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis planned to build small houses upon its own property which widows of families with young children could have free until their children were able to work. The plans called for small cottages, four in a group, surrounding a common dining hall, so divided that it could be used by four families.

The financial stringency of the past winter brought the plans to a head, for the society gave work to unemployed men in the erection of a number of the cottages.

An appeal was made to the public for additional funds and almost all the churches in the city co-operated with the society in every possible way.

JACKSONVILLE, ILL., EXPERIMENT

From Jacksonville, Ill., comes news of an interesting experiment. The county commissioners of Morgan county, Illinois, have appointed Mrs. Slaten, general secretary of the Jacksonville Associated Charities, overseer of the poor for that county. Wisely enough, the commissioners have made the appointment only for six months. They have given every indication, however, that if the experiment is successful, they hope to continue the arrangement indefinitely.

In the history of the relations between public out-door relief officials, and charity organization societies, the western officers

have always taken the lead. Only in Massachusetts has there been any widespread and cordial co-operation, in the East. It is true that there have been instances in other localities, for example, in Paterson, New Jersey, but they are only sporadic. In the West, however, the sentiment appears to be running more and more strongly in this direction. Never before, however, as far as the writer knows, has a public board tried the kind of co-operation described above. The county commissioners of Morgan county are to be congratulated for their open mindedness and lack of prejudice in agreeing to make the experiment.

THE SOCIAL CRITERION

The admirable paper read before the Edinburgh Charity Organization Society last November, by Professor Bernard Bosanquet, *The Social Criterion, or How to Judge of Proposed Social Reforms*, has been published in pamphlet form. The last two paragraphs of the address sum up the argument:

"Our common purpose, I said, is the excellence of human souls: the only means to this purpose which as social reformers we can handle, lies in legal provisions and acts of public and private administration, which cannot directly affect anything at all except external circumstances. Our purpose, therefore, can only be promoted indirectly; and for that reason, the greatest skill and finest adjustment are needed in the handling of our methods of reform. Simply to do in every case what you desire to see done, is a policy that frustrates itself, as the shelter and food question amply demonstrates.

"Therefore, I conclude that the test by which we are to judge of proposed social reforms is the old one of their tendency to develop character and capacity. But, the explanation is necessary, that this does not involve standing aside and refusing to handle social problems by law and administration; it does involve always, and in every case, the task of fine adjustment, the opening up of opportunity rather than direct assistance—above all things a respect for all forms of human contrivance and co-operation, and the continuous endeavor to help the people to help themselves."

It is, perhaps, unnecessary to explain that Professor Bosanquet has before him the panorama of English social programs which, more than in the United States have attempted to deal mechanically with conditions. Among these, of course, are the questions of the free meals for school children, the endowment of motherhood, comprehensive free medical service, the automatic pensioning of old people; and behind that, of course, are all that tide swell and tide ebb, of varying state policies regarding public relief, which mark the way back into the centuries.

Nevertheless, it is well to remember that

such suggested reforms have not been entirely absent in later years, at least, from our discussions. In the main, our reforms, whether we are of the school of Professor Bosanquet or not, are meeting his conclusions whenever they take a mechanical form of direct assistance with a reduction in legitimate and reasonable responsibilities, it is certainly a serious question whether state legislation and administration are the realm in which they should be worked out.

TAKING HOLD WITH VIM

The Augusta (Ga.) Associated Charities has re-organized with a board upon which are many strong business men. At a recent meeting it was voted that an immediate personal canvass for funds be made. The society intends to install an up-to-date registration system to secure more paid service. It will test the Georgia vagrancy law to see if it cannot reach, as it is theoretically supposed to reach, loafing husbands and fathers, supported by the wives and children working in the cotton mills. It also intends to test the strength of the desertion laws when the first case comes up. It intends to agitate for the greater extension of industrial training in the public schools, especially in the creation of an adequate trade school for boys. Housing conditions are not particularly bad in Augusta, but the visitors of the society will be instructed to report any conditions which require attention. The home collection of small savings, adequate legislation for juvenile probation, practical remedies to prevent too early marriage, a potent cause for desertion, fostered by the lax marriage laws of a neighboring state, are among the questions which are being considered. The new president, W. M. Rowland, has taken hold of things with vim.

The present board consists of W. M. Rowland, president; Tracy I. Hickman, vice-president; Mrs. Chas. H. Phinzy, second vice-president; Mrs. Eugene Verdery, third vice-president; Mrs. C. A. Rowland, fourth vice-president; J. G. Wiegler, treasurer; Mrs. L. S. Arrington, recording secretary; Mrs. E. S. Hollingsworth, general secretary; Archibald Blackshar, Major J. C. C. Black. Joseph H. Day, Rev. Geo. E. Guille, E. S. Johnson, S. Lesser, S. B. Owens, F. B. Pope, John Phinzy, C. P. Pressley, Irvine Alexander.

The society is to be congratulated in having in the workers in the constituent societies which have made up the Associated Charities, a group of women who have already taken the larger view and who needed but the assistance of the men to do work of great social importance.

BUFFALO'S DIVISION OF WORK

As a preface to the thirtieth year book of the oldest of the old guard, the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo offers this admirable epitome:

"OUR WORK—1907.

"The work of this society naturally divides itself into two parts. The first part is the fundamental work of helping poor families in distress. Last year we had under our care 1,762 poor families, comprising over 7,000 people. The aim is not merely to give these families temporary relief from suffering—although this is always provided—but always ultimate self-support, independence, and comfort are planned and worked for. Part I of this report describes this part of our work.

"The second part of the work of the society deals with conditions revealed by the work with families. The intimate knowledge of city and social conditions secured by a trained force in first-hand contact with the facts of life among the wage earners gives the best sort of data for reform movements, either legislative or administrative. In pursuance of this part of our work we have attacked bad housing conditions, tuberculosis, child labor, wife desertion, truancy, etc. Part II of the following report deals with this work during last year."

In the first part there is an exposition of the steps which will be useful to those who are trying to explain to the uninitiated just what we are driving at. The successive steps are:

The kind of work the society is asked to do.

The society's equipment.

Learning the trouble.

Making a plan.

Getting others to help.

The personal equation.

How the society can help the church's relief.

What it costs really to help 1,762 families.

In Part II tuberculosis is the first of the social enemies taken up. Of note here is the opening of the society's special dispensary in December, 1907. The frontispiece of the book shows a whole family about to be examined in compliance with the excellent rule followed when even one member of a pensioned family has the disease or when any patient comes for treatment. This frontispiece by the way serves well as the link between the two departments of work. The tuberculosis committee has now a competent paid secretary and the educational campaign and other activities promise to grow in importance.

The chief work of the tenement house committee has been in fighting for fire escapes where there were none.

The committee on children besides furthering state legislation has been engaged in endeavoring to bring about an effective enforcement of the truancy laws. In this direction the society had 1,000 school children examined with the result that sixty-three per cent were found to be in need of medical or surgical attendance. In consequence of this investigation and previous agitation by the City Federation of Women's

Clubs the school authorities have provided two medical inspectors and a nurse whose work must be made effective by appropriations for salaries.

The establishment of the Public Lodging House which has long been agitated by the Charity Organization Society and the Catholic Aid Society has been made notable by the novel civil service examination which was arranged to fill the position of superintendent.

The report says:

"The novelty lay in the fact that there were no written questions except as to experience and education, and the rating was made on personal interviews in turn with about forty candidates, with oral questions designed to test their personality. Dr. Hunter, for this society, and Mr. McDonough, for the Catholic Aid Society, were made associate examiners by the State Civil Service Commission, and they are satisfied that the three men rated highest, from whom the appointment will soon be made, are men of force and sympathy. (Mr. Krug, the highest on the list, was appointed December 27, 1907.)"

Some of the society's older activities have been in connection with the police and juvenile courts, probation commission, family desertion, legal aid, the state movement for the blind, parole, the Fitch Crèche, penny savings and mendicancy.

REFORM OF SWEDISH POOR LAWS

In January, 1905, the Central Association for Social Work in Sweden appointed a committee with powers to investigate the actual workings of the poor law, and to present a plan of reform. The report contains the following recommendations: Provision for more individual care of the poor; stricter compulsory legislation on the care of dependents, especially in non-support cases. The committee considers a legal recognition of the right of support necessary.

The poor law regulation of June 9, 1870, had emphasized the principle that every parish must support its poor. This was regarded as a duty towards the state, not towards the individual, who for this reason was not permitted to claim support. The committee recommends the recognition of a right to legal protection in non-support cases. It also recommends the legal distinction between obligatory and voluntary support of the poor. Support should be voluntary only so far that the charitable agencies should determine to what extent such support should be undertaken. At the same time a more liberal interpretation of the obligation clause is recommended; that the failure to support, on the one hand, and lack of ability, on the other hand, should be a sufficient reason for obligatory care and maintenance. Furthermore, it recommends the raising of the age of minority from fifteen

to eighteen years in order to give the poor law authorities more opportunities for influence.

It was suggested that outdoor relief should be prohibited in case of persons whose dependency is due to drunkenness or idleness, or who do not use the relief given for legitimate purposes.

Support in the home may be inadvisable unless the delinquent be placed in an institution. Such support should not usually be given for a period longer than six months. Every charitable institution should maintain a workhouse to give the able-bodied work.

The committee in its report on dependent children strongly urges separation of children from adults. In the case of a nursing mother, the woman should be given opportunity in the institution to nurse and care for her own child. A special guardian should be provided for each dependent child and provision should be made before the eighteenth year for the child's entrance into a trade or domestic service. To secure more efficient care of infants there should be legal restrictions prohibiting the industrial occupation of the nursing mother within six

months of confinement. The state should provide a system of insurance for her.

The formation of a committee for voluntary state supervision in case of all public and private institutions is urged. This committee should study needs of the country and the development of the poor law, should encourage the formation of necessary agencies and collect statistics, etc., in regard to other progressive countries. This committee is to be subject to the jurisdiction of the central committee of the poor.

A suggestion is also made, in cases of temporary relief, that the person supported should be encouraged by the relief agency to pay back the sum given during the period of dependency. The manner and amount of such payment should be in proportion to ability and income. Another form of payment should be in voluntary labor for the community in which dependent lives. If he still refuses to pay, a part of his income may be appropriated as a mortgage. This method is not to be used in case of minor dependents.

Non-supporters and deserters are forbidden to migrate. In case of refractoriness, imprisonment or detention is recommended.

The Delinquent

Samuel J. Barrows, Department Editor

How Probation Works in New York—Philadelphia's Juvenile Court—A Convict Prison in Japan—Federal Jails in Oklahoma—Washington's Jail a National Disgrace

PROBATION IN NEW YORK

Justices Olmsted and Deuel of the Court of Special Sessions of New York, have as a committee appointed by the court, presented facts and figures with some general observations relating to both juvenile and adult probation. In the Children's Court, since 1902, 45,000 cases have been considered and 6,579 have been treated in a probationary way. Of this number, the report says: "It has been possible to set the feet of 5,543 so firmly in the way that leads to good citizenship that neither has their commitment in institutions been necessary on the original case, nor have they been brought back to court at any time in all of that period, and committed for recurrent offenses. In other words, there has been a saving for the entire period of more than eighty-four per cent. As to adult probation, during the past seven years, 4,896 cases were investigated by the probation officers of the Court of Special Sessions, and 2,131 offenders were placed on parole. Less than six per cent of this number have violated their parole.

It is interesting to note that the judges have recognized the need of better super-

vision over the probation system and are supporting a bill providing for the supervision of probation for children in this state. There is, however, a State Probation Commission already existing and there seems no reason why a second commission should be created for this purpose.

JUVENILE COURT IN PHILADELPHIA

Recently the committee of the board of judges of the Juvenile Court in Philadelphia was asked various questions as to the duties, rights, powers and privileges of probation officers appointed or designated by the court. Judge Staae has given an extended opinion on the subject. Among other things, the judge laid down the following principles in regard to the duties of probation officers:

"A probation officer holds office during the pleasure of the court; is to make investigations as required by the court; to be present at trials; to furnish information and assistance to the court; to take such charge of a child as is required by the court; and he has no authority to engage in any other special work, such as that called 'preventive work.' Neither a magistrate, a private citizen, nor

any charitable society has any authority over probation officers. A probation officer has no authority over a child discharged by the court. The court can the court subject such supervision of a probation officer placed on probation is not discharged probation may be terminated. It is not the duty of probation officers to attend hearings before the House of Detention unless the court, nor have they the power to interfere with his actions. Probation officers have no authority over the House of Detention except by the court; but they are permitted to visit such children. It is the duty of the managers of the House of Detention to provide special officers for probation officers. They are permitted the assistance and suggestions of the managers and members of probation officers. Probation officers have no power to delegate its

THE OFFENDERS

but Prison Association in its report has the following paragraph: "The fixed or determinate sentence of the late Francis Wayland, a New School at Yale College, a criminal repentant and unrepentant set at liberty for no other reason than because a certain number of months and years has elapsed, is so monstrous and inhuman that it would seem that the baldness of the law would be sufficient to exonerate him. When the doctrine of the law, as well as theoretically, the object of imprisonment is to reform by confining and reforming, we may hope that this flaunting the power of the state will be ended." This 'flagrant abuse of the state' is the practice of our country at present, and will probably continue till a bill having the name of the one continued to the general assembly in 1909 is enacted."

PRISON IN JAPAN

The Salvation Army, Commissioned, has inspected the convict prison at Tokyo, which has lately cost an enormous expense. According to its report, it is a prison thorough in every department. Commissioned says:

"Two things soon became apparent—namely, that the system is organized on the principle of reforming the individual, as distinct from his pure conviction; and that this is sought to be accomplished by systematically instilling into his mind moral principles and equipping him with the practical knowledge of some industry by which he can earn an honest livelihood. The officers, from

the governor down, are selected and trained to some extent accordingly. The one idea that a prisoner had to be caged and treated as a wild hyena is as dead as the feudal system, as far as Japan is concerned. They have no use for a system based on such a conception of the unruly members of society. Legislation, education and government administration have for years now been permeated with the philosophy that crime is a disease, and ought to be diagnosed and treated much in the same way as small-pox or lunacy.

"On a prisoner being handed over to the governor almost the first attention he receives is from the governor himself, or his deputy. What we would call a 'personal' is gone through and it is on a pretty extensive scale. The man's crime, individuality, antecedents, appearance, circumstances, relations, are all stamped on his mind, and the prisoner is from the start made to feel that his incarceration can, if he likes, be made the means of wiping out the reproach against his character and family, and setting him on a new and orderly and better path. In taking the convict by the hand in this way, the governor is supported by a fine national sentiment. A released convict is not subjected to such social aversion and boycotting as in European countries. He is held to have purged his offence, and that the brand has been removed from his name, and though he may be deprived of his rights in society of certain privileges, that is, he would not be appointed to a mayoralty or nominated as a member of parliament—he is not looked down upon, and anyone proved guilty of bringing up his past to his detriment in business can be severely punished."

OHIO PENITENTIARY COMMISSION

The commission appointed by the Legislature of Ohio to consider the question of building a new penitentiary, the name given in Ohio to the state prison, has presented its report to the governor. From this it appears that the land now used for the penitentiary at Columbus is a little less than twenty-three acres, which could be sold for \$325,000. Land suitable for a new penitentiary could be obtained at an average cost of from \$75 to \$125 per acre. The total cost of buildings and improvements for a new penitentiary, exclusive of the land, aggregates about \$2,600,000. The commission is clearly of the opinion that the state should have a new penitentiary upon a new site and that it should be located upon a large tract of land. But the members of the commission differ as to the number of acres that should be obtained, their views ranging from not less than 1,000 to not less than 2,000.

The commission further recommends that insane prisoners should be sent to the regular state hospital for the insane where an annex should be built for that purpose, so that they might have the benefit of proper treatment.

A CANADIAN REFORMATORY

The Prison Commission appointed by the Ontario Legislature has made a report to that body advocating the abolition of the Central Provincial Prison located at Toronto, and establishing in its place a modern reformatory for young men on the indeterminate plan. To prepare the way for this, the state reformatory for boys sixteen to twenty-one years of age was four years ago turned into an insane asylum, the lads, some one hundred and twenty in number, being transferred to J. J. Kelso, superintendent of the Children's Department, who placed them all in situations, with only two per cent of failure. The Central Prison has been receiving young men eighteen to twenty-five years of age on short sentences, but, although excellently managed by Dr. Gilchrist, the results have been unsatisfactory, owing to the location of the institution and inability to accomplish much with short sentence men. Reviewing the whole situation the government has decided to purchase a large tract of land and establish an industrial farm on the plan so successfully carried out at Mansfield, Ohio. The site has yet been selected but this will be done in the near future. That confinement perhaps would be injurious is demonstrated by the fact that out of 639 prisoners committed to the Central Prison during 1906, 371 were laborers and teamsters and ten were farmers. In other words, over sixty per cent of the total population were men whose daily occupation was in the open air.

SHERBOURNE REFORMATORY

Massachusetts is facing the interesting fact that the number of prisoners in its reformatory prison for women at Sherbourne is lower than that of any other year in the history of the prison. On November 30, only 148 remained in the institution. This decreased number is not caused by any change of court practice by which more cases are sent elsewhere. The report of the prison commissioner says: "In some of the county prisons, there are no women at all. In others, the number has become so small that there are not enough to do the domestic work, and male prisoners have taken their places. In all the prisons the number of women has fallen far below any condition that has existed for a long time." Concerning the lessening number of commitments for women, it is interesting to note that in 1881 of every hundred prisoners committed to prison, nineteen were women, the proportion being stated in that year as eighty-one per cent males and nineteen per cent females. Last year, that is the year ending September 30, 1907, only nine per cent of the commitments were females, less than half the percentage of twenty-six years ago.

WASHINGTON, D. C., JAIL

The campaign of criticism against the Washington jail led by the *Star* of that city goes on. It is gratifying to know that the Department of Justice is thoroughly alive to the condition of things and would at once build a new penitentiary if Congress would furnish the money. One of the most scathing criticisms of the present jail has been made by Mrs. J. Ellen Foster, special agent for the Department of Justice, in a report to the attorney-general. The present jail is overcrowded, its sanitary conditions are primitive and imperfect. The cells are small and devoid of sanitary appliances. There is no women's hospital, no jail yard in which the prisoners may exercise. They are marched through the corridors a half hour daily; they are never in the open air. Mrs. Foster recommends the relief of the present congestion in the jail by committing all men and women sentenced for over one year to the penitentiary instead of the district jail.

But a most important recommendation is the erection in the district of a modern reformatory for all male prisoners above the age limit provided for boys and girls. "Farm work should be scientifically planned and progressively developed and various industries installed. The jail thus relieved of the larger part of its present population should be thoroughly renovated, sanitary plumbing, modern cell houses, a dining room and a hospital supplied. The entire plant should be modernized and thereafter used as a place of detention only."

Not only the reputation of Washington, but that of the whole country is compromised by having at the national capital within a short distance from the halls of Congress, such a disgrace as the Washington jail. The federal government should not be behind any of the leading states in installing better conditions, and it would not be if Congress were awake to its responsibility.

STATE CONTROL OF PRISONS.

-- wise step towards state control of prisons has been taken in Indiana. The buildings formerly occupied by the Girls' Industrial school are to be remodeled. It is the intention to remove to this institution all women confined in jails and workhouses, and hereafter to sentence women to this institution instead of to the jails and workhouses. It is time that our county system of dealing with offenders of any sort should give place to state control.

FEDERAL JAILS IN OKLAHOMA

A few months ago when the writer was in Oklahoma, he visited the federal jail in Guthrie. Prisoners were asked to send in their suggestions for changes in the discipli-

pline and management of the jail. The recommendations, which were put in writing, were nearly all intelligent and worthy of consideration. One prisoner suggested that transportation to the place from which they were brought should be given prisoners on discharge, and "that all jails be provided with places for baths and laundries, with proper bedding, a separate ward for the sick, proper diet and medicine, writing material and one stamp a week free of charge."

Another suggested "that prisoners should have an early trial. I have known parties to be held here for a year awaiting trial

and then be turned loose on account of lack of evidence."

"Cigarette smoking and gambling should be prohibited in jails," said another prisoner, "for I believe it causes lots of young men to learn bad habits." One prisoner recommended an allowance of five days off each month for good behavior. The prisoners generally agreed in preferring three meals a day to two. One expressed a decided preference for work rather than idleness in jail. Two of the prisoners asked to be allowed to bathe and change their clothes once a week and asked that a merit system for sentenced prisoners be considered.

Communications

THE FEE SYSTEM

TO THE EDITOR:

A police magistrate of Springfield, Illinois, Clark Shipp, delivered a notable address on the last day of 1907, the subject of which was the fee system, in its relation to justices of the peace. After speaking of the importance of this office and the great variety of services rendered to the community by the men who fill it, he went on to say: "If the magistrate imposes a small fine in a misdemeanor case, he will probably collect it, and if so, he then receives his fee. If he imposes a heavy fine, and it carries with it a jail sentence, he receives no fee at all, and his work is done for nothing." He illustrated the point thus made from his personal experience in dealing with white women who live in resorts conducted by Negro men and women, and are there for the purpose of receiving Negro men only. He found, on taking office that there were in Springfield a large number of such women and that it had been customary to deal with them in the police court by imposing a fine of three dollars and costs, which they could easily and invariably pay, after which they simply returned to their old haunts. He adopted the method of fining them to the extent of the law, one hundred dollars and costs, and imposing a sentence of imprisonment for six months in the county jail. Had he followed his predecessor's example, he would not only have received his fees, but the accused would have been re-arrested every few weeks, and further fines and fees would have been forthcoming. "It is easy to see the temptation presented to refuse to impose the larger sentence, but accept the smaller, together with the accompanying fee." He concluded by saying: "The entire system is wrong from start to finish; and I am of the opinion that the office should be placed on a salary basis. Better service would be had by the community at large, better men would seek the office and in the end the city, township and

county would receive more revenue in the long run, even after paying salaries to these officials."

Graft and political corruption are twin sisters, the offspring of the same evil mother. The fee system, whether in the prosecuting attorney's office, the police court or the city or county prison, wherever it touches the administration of criminal justice, is, like vice, "a monster of such frightful mien that to be hated, needs but to be seen."

FREDERICK H. WINES.

Beaufort, N. C.

IN THE OLD FOLK'S HOME

TO THE EDITOR:

First of all I want to express to you my constantly growing appreciation of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. I am a minister and first and last I hear—and I fear that I say—a great deal about goodness in the abstract. In your journal I find a record of more goodness in the concrete than can be found in any other publication, periodical or occasional. I know of nothing which has a more constant efficiency in toning up one's optimism and in assuring him that the kingdom of this world is actually being transformed into the kingdom of God. And in all this I have not said one word of my acute sense of gratitude in recognition of all the horrible blunders I have been saved through a perusal of its records.

There is one aspect of social need of which I have never read anything. Every day it becomes more conspicuous. I wonder if you do not know someone who could write an article on it. I refer to the social needs of an old folk's home. Some of them seem to me demoralizing as they are. The management is often most efficient in providing most suitably for the creature needs of old ladies and gentlemen. After the inmates have paid their \$300 or \$500, some of them seem to settle back and almost defiantly ask: Now, what are you going to do for me? Benevolently inclined individuals exclaim,

"Everything to make you happy."

It is not surprising then, that in response to that "Everything," some of them develop an ungracious not to say a hateful attitude of never satisfied expectancy. Querulous complaint becomes habitual with them.

Of course some homes are highly favored; all their inmates live precisely as they should, and everybody is happy forever after. One has only unlimited commendation for the rare ability and character of all concerned, directors and matrons as well as inmates. On the other hand it is not so with all homes, and for such it would seem as if the year-of-probation policy already adopted by some would be capable of further development.

In that one year of partial suspense the mind of an aged person may be opened to welcome the admission of an unfamiliar idea. There might be a dual effort: First, to set before inmates, in talks, when all are gathered together, the ideal of family friendliness, mutual dependence and patience which we are trying to exemplify in their daily life in the home. The presence of all at such a talk gives it the impersonality of a universal law; at the same time, the presence of the older members would give to the newcomer the token of their assent and loyalty. At that moment the newcomer is prepared as at no other in his advanced years to make an effort to modify in some degree the peculiarities of his individualism in the interest of what is so obviously for the commonweal.

The second effort might be directed towards helping this newcomer to express the very best there is in him in his effort to make life interesting and delightful as well as comfortable for his fellow inmates. In the general gatherings, as well as in private conversation it might be well to foster the idea that it is everyone's duty to do his utmost to help each newcomer during his year of probation to become fitted—that is, prepared and equipped for life in that friendly loving family.

WALTER F. GREENMAN.

Watertown, Mass.

OCCIDENT IN THE ORIENT

TO THE EDITOR:

So far as tuberculosis is concerned, it is not uncommon here, but I have never heard it ascribed to contact with occidental civilization. Child labor is universal among the poorer classes and it is certainly indigenous. The establishment of steam mills in recent years, has made a change in the form of child labor in the case of the larger children, but the little ones from the age say of three years and upwards, work as a matter of course to aid in the support of the family. The mills, too, are comparatively few, and there are not many children affected by them.

The principal evils which I think may fairly be called by-products of western civili-

zation, are greater extravagance in living and the drink habit. Of these two, the former is no doubt largely owing to the increase and wider diffusion of wealth. The latter is an unmitigated evil which is rapidly increasing and is due I believe to the introduction of occidental civilization. Thanks for your letter and the magazine.

C. B. NEWTON.

Jullundur City, Punjab, British India.

FROM A SUBSCRIBER

TO THE EDITOR:

I duly received your recent appeal to your subscribers. Please enroll my name as a co-operating subscriber. I enclose a cheque for ten dollars; and I wish to say that I feel it a great privilege to help in some slight measure in the splendid work the Charities Publication Committee is doing. I wish it were in my power to do more. The accounts of the work being done I find most inspiring, and I cannot easily express my appreciation of the spirit and tone of all your publications—their deep earnestness and entire fairness, and the temperateness shown in describing and commenting upon, without condoning, the evils striven against.

HENRY TABER.

Worcester, Mass.

NO PITY FOR LANDLORDS

TO THE EDITOR:

Mr. Hopf asks, in your issue of recent date, "Do Mr. Riis and Mr. Hall know what a wear and tear it is upon the average tenement house landlord's physical well-being to own this class of property and what his returns are on the capital invested? Would they be willing to invest their capital in tenements on the interest return received?"

Yes, I would. I own and have owned for years various tenements; but I have the same interest in model tenements that a surgeon displays in "a beautiful ulcer"—I like to see the thing come to a head. I will be glad to visit Mr. Hopf's tenements. If they are all that they are cracked up to be, I will guarantee Mr. Hopf his four and one-half per cent profit, if he will allow me to have the increased value of those tenements, or rather of the land on which they are built. But no landlord would do that.

Let us have done with this humbug about the small profits of the tenement house owner, and let us think of his profits as land owner.

The tenement house owner goes into the court of morals to show that he is making a very small profit. As a house-owner he is; and if you and I ran our business in the way we ran our tenements, through an agent, and for reasons best known to ourselves never go near the property except when we cannot help it, our business would make small profits too. The reason that our

profits as landlords do not appear as large as they really are, is because we have already paid the prior owners of the land a price based partly on future values. Until the site we have bought comes to be so much needed that we can get rents based on this expected value, the percentage of profits seems low.

If it is right that we should be paid for owning the earth, let us defend it, and not try to crawl out on the plea that we are such fools as to keep unprofitable property.

BOLTON HALL.

56 Pine Street, New York.

A CORRECTION

TO THE EDITOR:

May I ask you to make a correction in your columns to the statement, in your recent issue, of my relation to the child labor work in this state? I was elected secretary, not of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee, but of the Philadelphia Section of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association. There is a similar local organization actively at work in Pittsburgh. The organization of the state association, which will federate these and other local bodies has not been completed. May I point out also that my address in this city is now No. 1338 Real Estate Trust Building.

FRED. S. HALL.

WATER FOR AN INSTITUTION

MR. M. N. BAKER,

Editor The Engineering News,
220 Broadway, New York City.

Dear Sir.—The commission appointed to select a site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum has recommended the purchase at a cost of \$9,000 of a water shed approximating one square mile to be used with a suitable dam as a source of gravity water supply for the proposed institution. Twenty-five hundred patients are ultimately to be cared for, requiring, it is estimated on past experience, an average of 100 gallons per capita per day. Also, the buildings are to be given suitable fire protection.

A question has been raised as to the wisdom of going outside the property for such a gravity supply when there is a possibility that the water can be secured from wells or springs on the site proper by means of steam pumps.

The cost as estimated by the consulting engineer employed by the commission calls, in the case of the gravity supply with the necessary reservoir, for a yearly charge of \$3,140. His estimate of a steam power pumping station of equivalent capacity along with a suitable distributing reservoir is an annual charge of about \$3,600.

The point is made that a small steam pumping system could be installed at first, which for a number of years at least could be made to supply the needs of the grow-

ing institution, at a considerably smaller annual charge than the \$3,600 estimate given above. It has also been questioned whether this \$3,600 as the ultimate charge when the institution has grown to the full capacity could not be materially reduced.

The questions raised are of far-reaching interest because of the very large number of public institutions being built annually with requirements similar to the new colony. Most of these institutions have not as a matter of fact anything like an adequate pumping plant or adequate reservoir, at least for fire protection, and almost none of them have the unique opportunity which is afforded at the present site of securing a gravity water supply.

You will confer a favor upon me if you will state, for the information of the readers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS whether standard engineering practice would approve of the installation of a small pumping plant, to be increased or duplicated in similar scattered units as the institution grows; whether the considerable initial outlay required for the gravity system is warranted by the ultimate economy and the increased fire protection accorded; whether, if the annual charge for the gravity system were found to be even higher, say, twenty per cent, instead of ten per cent lower, than for the equivalent pumping plant, there would still be ultimate considerations, as the increasing cost of coal, or the uncertainty of wells and springs, which would make the gravity supply materially preferable.

Sincerely yours,

EDWARD T. DEVINE.

MR. EDWARD T. DEVINE,

Editor CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS,
105 East 22d Street, New York City.

Dear Sir.—Your letter of March 31 has been received. The best engineering practice is to provide gravity water supply systems rather than pumping systems wherever an equally good supply can be obtained by gravity without too great an increase of annual cost.

A heavy initial outlay for a gravity system may be far cheaper than a light initial outlay for a pumping system, since the higher interest charges of a gravity system may be more than offset by its lower operating costs. But of chief importance is the greater reliability of a gravity system for fire protection and for general supply purposes.

Wells often prove disappointing as sources of supply, since after being used for several years their yield is liable to diminish. When this occurs new wells must be sunk, perhaps at a new location, thus resulting in several small pumping plants, the operation of which is costly and may be unreliable.

The increasing cost of fuel, as you suggest, is another argument against pumping and in favor of gravity supplies.

I may add that in the case of such a group of scattered institutional buildings as is here involved, it might prove to be particularly advantageous to have the source of water supply off rather than on the grounds, thus avoiding all risk of local pollution. Within a year, the ground water supply of the State Insane Hospital, at Trenton, N. J., was contaminated by a defective sewer. Before it was discovered a large number of cases of typhoid fever occurred in the asylum. The purchase of a large part of the drainage area of the proposed gravity water supply mentioned in your letter to me should ensure the purity of that water.

A water supply which will be ample for many years to come is particularly valuable for a public institution, dependent for appropriations on a legislative body which meets only once a year and which is so overwhelmed with demands for legislation and for money that the fate of any given and seemingly minor bill is uncertain. And finally, a gravity rather than a pumping water supply is desirable for a public institution because a gravity supply reduces to a minimum both the necessary labor and skilled attendance for its operation, and because the bulk of its annual expenses are fixed and uniform (being for capital charges) and are therefore met automatically instead of being subject to heavy yearly variations that may impair the efficiency of the water supply.

Yours truly,

M. N. BAKER.

REFORM THROUGH DEVELOPMENT

TO THE EDITOR:

Alexander Johnson, at the last meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, said that the conference was "a prophetic body;" CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS ought, therefore, to be the organ of prophets; of such as are looking forward and pressing forward.

No one forward step in penology has been so great in centuries as the institution of the reformatory movement, but the last word has not yet been spoken in relation to this movement, and it is possible that other steps will yet be taken as great as this. A serious defect in the present reformatory system is that the system tends to break down the manhood of the inmate. No opportunity is given for the cultivation of self-dependence, the power of initiative, and self-control. The prisoner is treated as a serf until he becomes a serf. He is cared for as a child until he becomes a child. Wise parents put more and more responsibility on their children and so train them for the responsibilities of mature life; but the prisoner has no responsibility; is treated as a helpless child, and so becomes helpless.

The great object of the reformatory is to secure the reformation of the inmate; but can any one be reformed by subtracting from his virility,—his self-dependency and self-control? The vices of the delinquent are to

be overcome; but the best way to overcome vice is to inculcate virtue. If it were possible to suppress one's vices, would a young man be of any worth to society for whom nothing more was done? It is not possible, however, to overcome vice by repression; seven other, and worse, evil spirits will come back and find "the house swept and garnished," and, entering in, will hold high carnival there. A reformatory should employ just as little of the repressive, and just as much of the formative and constructive, method as possible.

The reformatory idea is, in the main, that of probation. The inmate is constantly being tried, tested, and, if found worthy, approved. When this method has been employed sufficiently to prove an inmate worthy of trust, why not trust him? After six months of satisfactory conduct, the inmate is advanced to the first grade; when so promoted, why not give to him essentially self-government? Should he abuse the trust reposed in him, it can be taken away; but so long as he shows himself to be worthy, is there any good reason why he should not be accorded the inestimable privilege of self-control? And would he not in that way become the better prepared for the time when, as a parole, he will necessarily exercise that high function? The boys might work under their own foremen; they might have instructors from among themselves—as they often do; they might constitute the "court," subject to oversight and review; and, in various ways, carry on the duties of citizenship, and so become trained for such duties when they come out.

The reformatory is not far enough removed from the prison. When an inmate is approaching "eligibility," why not give him more and more something like the home life? Let his cell give place to a neat little room; let the dining room be furnished with small tables for four, six, or eight, with linen covers, napkins and other things that belong to refined life; let conversation be carried on, subject to such regulations as might seem wise; let him go outside the walls occasionally for a stroll, for exercise; and so in various ways let him act as his own master, and be held responsible for his conduct, and so be gradually prepared for the freedom soon to be accorded to him.

Some reformatories have introduced a graduated parole; it is an important step forward. The change from the life within walls and cells to that without is too great, and few can bear it. The poor fellow comes suddenly out of mid-night into mid-day and is dazed by the blaze of light. Is it not feasible to give him liberty at first for a day? If that is not abused, try him with a week, and then a month; in other words, let the parole man be graduated. Surely more of the boys would do well under some such plan.

Is it in accord with our boasted twentieth century civilization to build prison walls about reformatories, and hold the inmates

under the oversight of men who carry guns on their shoulders? If some of the inmates can be kept in no other way, has not a mistake been made in sending them to such an institution? When a reformatory inmate has proven himself to be incorrigible, a degenerate, he should be removed at once to a prison; but a reformatory should be a great industrial school, and its proper inmates will be amenable to kindness, to humanity, to brotherhood, will be held better by these great forces than by walls or guns.

Undoubtedly it will require great skill, wisdom and a passion for humanity, to make such methods as have been suggested practicable in the management of reformatories, but surely the man will arise—the time is now ripe for his advent—who will leap as far beyond Brockway as he leaped beyond the men of his day, and who will be able to conduct a reformatory that will be nobly humane in its methods, and who will do a really constructive work in the rebuilding of broken down characters.

GEORGE S. RICKER,

District Superintendent Society for the Friendless, Wichita, Kansas.

MISS HAMMOND'S WORK

TO THE EDITOR:

It does not seem quite fair for the article in your issue of March 14 to be headed Baltimore's Practical Help for Working Children, as it was only the work of the Child Labor Committee of the S. W. District of the Federated Charities, and there is other child labor work being done in some of the other nine districts. I should be glad if that could be corrected in the next issue. The agent of the district to whom a large part of the credit for good work is due is Miss Juliet Hammond,

ELISABETH E. GILMAN.

641 Park Ave., Baltimore.

GARDENS AT SPEYER SCHOOL

TO THE EDITOR:

In the course of a recent conversation with Mrs. Henry Parsons of the Children's School Farm League, she told me that very many attempts at roof gardening had failed. Here at the Speyer School, New York, we have had rather good success for the past three years. Perhaps our experience might help

some one who is making a fresh effort. The boxes are about eight feet by twelve feet by thirty-six feet, hung about three feet from the floor. The earth is only about six inches deep, and very much washed with watering and the rains. Besides the boxes we have a larger box on the floor with about fifteen inches of soil. In this box we put scarlet geraniums, which flourished and blossomed gorgeously all summer long. They were a constant source of delight to the playground children every afternoon, as well as to the older people who came in the evenings.

In the smaller boxes to the south and west we put mixed snap-dragons, which more than repaid the little care expended on them. They began to bloom within a few weeks after they were planted, when not more than six or seven inches high, and continued to increase in size and numbers of blooms for some time. All during the hot August weather, these flowers were at their best, being covered with a profusion of blossoms of the most beautiful colors, of which there is such a wide range. The plants wilt with the drought, but immediately recover their freshness as soon as they get a little moisture. They never seem to turn that faded green-yellow so characteristic of most plants that suffer from the heat. The drought for short periods never seemed to cut down, appreciably, the supply of blossoms.

To the north and east, we planted nasturtiums. These plants are not so able to stand the drought, but give large and quick returns for a little care. They should be watered every day, or they soon become quite yellow, and cease to bloom. We gave great quantities of these bright flowers to the children who were helpful in any way in the playground, also to many sick and afflicted in the neighborhood, not to mention our personal friends.

There is a faucet on the roof, but the pressure is not enough to carry the water into boxes. The children have always been of the greatest assistance in watering. Their enthusiasm seemed not to wane on the hottest days. To these faithful co-workers is due, in a large measure, the success of the Speyer School roof garden.

LOUISE GLANTON.

94 Lawrence St., New York.

Social Forces

By the Editor

THE RIGHT VIEW OF THE CHILD

In certain cotton-raising districts of the South there is a strange saying that cotton and ignorance go naturally together. A man's wealth—that is to say not his well-being, which would be right enough, but his money income—is measured by the number of his children, and not, as it should be, by the efficiency of the adult. Could there be a clearer expression of the old, discredited view of the child? The bag slung about the neck for the cotton is made to fit the child, while the school term is adjusted not to the child but to the working season. The child is the center of the economic world and not the center of the educational and domestic world, and this means that the child is for exploitation and profit, rather than for nurture and protection. Thus cotton and ignorance are linked together—not naturally, but most unnaturally, and the industry which is otherwise the pride of the South and of America is blighted, not only in the mill but from the hour of its planting, joining the sweated industries of the northern cities and the glass works of northern towns as an active cause of race degeneracy and race suicide. Though it may be reprehensible for the race to perish for lack of births, it is a more shameful thing to destroy the vitality, to dwarf the minds, to refuse the natural and necessary protection of childhood to the children who are born into the world.

The new view of the child, which we may place against this background, has not been revealed by any single miraculous illumination. Would that some apostle on the way to Damascus could have a glorious vision of the divinity indwelling in the soul and body of the unspoiled child! But it is not so that social workers are guided to the formulation of their new ideals.

Piecemeal and fragmentary is the process by which we put together the outlines of the society which we would create; doubtful and arduous the advance towards it. The new view of anything, if it is a true and useful view, is likely to be but a synthesis, or a new interpretation, of old ideas; a convincing statement which we may all comprehend of ideas long held here and there by a few people of extraordinary insight. It is not necessary, as Socrates thought, that philosophers become kings, or kings philosophers, but only that the speculations of the philosopher be put into language which kings may understand. We,

therefore, we citizens and kings of America, not setting ourselves up as philosophers, in describing our new view of the child may justly appropriate some of the fragmentary older new views which have been gained from time to time.

We may begin by urging the right of the conceived child in the mother's womb to be born. When the Children's Bureau is established in Washington it may well begin its labors by an investigation of sterility, abortions and still births. The new view, the religious view, the social view, the physiological view, the rational view of the child from every standpoint is that the right to birth itself must not be abridged. If disease interferes with it, then disease must be overcome. If deliberate crime interferes with it, then crime must be punished. If unscrupulous medical skill interferes with it, that medical practice must be brought more completely under professional ban and criminal prosecution. If ignorance and vicious indulgence interfere with it, then education at an early age by parents and teachers and physicians and others must take the place of the conspiracy of silence. If the employment of women in factories interferes with it, then that employment must be curtailed.

The right to be well-born is followed, in the new view of the child, by the right to grow up. We are doing better than our forefathers in this respect. Two hundred years ago in London, three-quarters of all the children that were born died before the completion of their fifth year. Decade after decade that percentage has been pushed down until now it is something like twenty-five instead of seventy-five per cent.

Even now, in 1900, in the registration area of the United States, the death rate for all children in their first year is 165 in the thousand. Milk poisoning, ignorance of mothers as to how to feed and care for their children, inability to nurse them, either for physical or for economic reasons, lack of necessary facilities for surgical and medical treatment, and lack of knowledge in the rank and file of the medical profession concerning the diagnosis and treatment of infantile disorders, are among the causes for this high mortality among infants. The greatest advances of medical science have been in this field, and the substantial reduction in the death rate of many communities is due to the saving of the lives of babies more than to reduction at any later age. It is the new view, the social view, that this process should be carried farther, and that those who are born shall be permitted not only to survive, but to become physically healthy and strong. The Children's Bureau, which is to be for investigation and publicity, not for administration, will deal with that subject also. The Federal government should study continuously the problems of illegitimacy, infant mortality, illiteracy, feeble mindedness, orphanage, child dependence, and child labor, just as it studies, and properly studies, the soils, the forests, the fisheries and the crops.

The third element in the new view of the child is that he has a right to be happy, even in school. Pestalozzi and Froebel helped us to think that out. Jane Addams has suggested that one day we shall be ashamed of our present arguments for the prohibition of child labor,—that it is physically destructive and educationally disastrous, although these seem like reasonably adequate arguments to start with, and shall recognize that the joyousness of childhood, the glorious fulness of enjoyment for which children are by nature adapted, and by

their Creator intended, is in itself a worthy end of legislation and social concern. Bronson Alcott, of whom it is said that his greatest contribution to American literature was his daughter, says that a happy childhood is the prelude to a ripe manhood. It is no artificial, hothouse, forced development of something which might be called happiness that we seek, but the spontaneous activity and growth of a protected, unexploited childhood.

It is a part of this new view, fourth, that the child has a right to become a useful member of society. This implies industrial—or stating it more broadly—vocational education. It supports the suggestion made by Mr. Noyes in one of the publications of the National Child Labor Committee that the school day might well be made longer, with greater variety in curriculum; and that the work which we deny, and rightly deny, in the factory for profit, may be demanded in the school for an hour or two or more daily for education and training. The disingenuous arguments as to the educational value of specialized long continued factory labor may be tested by the willingness of those who make them to introduce genuinely educational employment with the element of profit eliminated, into the school curriculum, where alone it belongs. Industrial efficiency is diminished or destroyed and not increased by child labor.

There is one final element in the new view of the child, the right to inherit the past more and more fully, the right to begin farther and farther along, the right not only to begin where the parent began—even that is denied when through destroying the strength and retarding the education of children, race degeneracy sets in—the right which we now assert is the right not only to be protected against degeneracy, but the right to progress. It is the new view of the child, the American view, that the child is worthy of the parent's sacrifice, that he must mount upon our shoulders and climb higher, that not only in accumulated possessions, but also in mastery over the physical universe, in spiritual attainment, in the power to serve his fellow men and to glorify God, he shall rise above his father's level. It is not a new idea. Hector, on the plains of Troy, had a notion that men might say of Astyanax that he was a far better man than his father, and perhaps they did, or would have done so had Hector lived to protect and rear him. In a given instance the plan may fail, but the plan itself is significant for the father and for the child. The American child is not unknown in text books and essays and fiction. He has been pictured as smart, precocious, disrespectful and offensive. The child of the rich and preoccupied American, and of the vain and indulgent American, has sharpened the pencil of the caricaturist. Kipling in *Captains Courageous* plucked such a child from the liner and put him at the work on a fishing dory on the Banks of Newfoundland which his regeneration required. The neglected and spoiled child of foolish indulgence, and the neglected and spoiled child of avaricious poverty, tend to develop similar or equally lamentable traits. In neither case is there recognition of these fundamental elements in what we have called the right view of the child—normal birth, physical protection, joyous infancy, useful education and an ever fuller inheritance of the accumulated riches of civilization.

RELIGION AND SOCIOLOGY

Is it true that—

"It is the tradition in the churches to ascribe the existence of crime to the perversity of the individual, but the evidence is now complete and may be understood by any who will take the trouble to examine it, that crime is largely a social product." So it is maintained in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, in the course of an editorial leader entitled *The Need for a Religious Awakening*. If the latter part of the sentence is intended as a denial of the position of "the churches" expressed in the former part, we question it. "In an ideal community," says the same article, "there will be no such thing as professional crime." Yes, but the "ideal community" is simply the community from which sin has been abolished. Sociologists never can produce that community.

The social reformer who substitutes environment, heredity, social conditions, or anything else, for *sin*, is making a huge mistake. He is confounding temptation with succumbing to temptation. We may thus illustrate it in tangible form. The drunkard may be tempted by his heredity, his environment, his evil associates, the bad social conditions in which his lot is cast to drink to excess and so to commit the sin of drunkenness; but the act of entering the saloon, of drawing a nickel from his pocket, of lifting a glass to his lips, is a voluntary act of a free agent and thus—if the effect of the act be the sin of drunkenness—is a sin.

Moral workers should seek to do two things, and not to confound them. One is to remove bad environment, to correct evil heredity, to improve bad social conditions. This is the work of sociology and political economy. It will greatly diminish—not altogether abolish—the temptation to the grosser forms of sin. The other is to counteract the temptation which is derived from these conditions, so long as they exist. This is the work of religion. That, only, can cope with the temptation itself. The very fact that men whose lives have been lived in comfort and in luxury, fall into sin—and sometimes they are the worst criminals—disproves the contention that sin will disappear with the correction of social abuses.—*The Living Church*.

Sin and professional crime are not to be identified. Leaving that aside, however, it is difficult to believe that *The Living Church*—whether those words stand for the journal or for the church itself—seriously intends to limit religion to the counteracting of temptation, and to leave to sociology and political economy the removal of bad environment, the correction of evil heredity, and the improvement of bad social conditions. Social workers believe that in relieving distress and changing bad conditions they are engaged in a religious ministry. Let the churches repudiate this conception and relegate to "sociologists" the responsibility for social conditions, and it will not be long before the churches will find that religion dwells elsewhere than in their midst.

The power to resist temptation is not a mysterious gift from an external source. The strengthening of the will to resist and overcome temptation is a gradual and complex process. Sermons and ritual and the study of holy writ are aids in that process, but so also are the correction of evil heredity, the transformation of environment and the improvement of social conditions. The creation of new and stronger motives of right choice should be welcomed by religion, not as an incident in some foreign, although perhaps sufficiently praiseworthy field of effort, but as a direct aid in the realization of its own ideal. Religion should see in the correction of social abuses one means among many for the conquest of evil in the world, for the regeneration of society. We are not speaking of any particular activity in social reform by the church in its corporate capacity. We speak only of the fundamental conception of religion which we are to cherish. That, in our view, should be broadened to include both the overcoming of temptation by the individual and the conquest of evils in that environment in which the individual must live his religious no less than his economic life.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

FEDERAL EMPLOYER'S LIABILITY LAW

Again we have a federal employer's liability law, this time following as carefully as possible the rules laid down by the Supreme Court when it declared the 1906 measure unconstitutional. Taken all in all the Sterling law which passed both House and Senate with only one dissenting vote, that of Congressman Littlefield of Maine, seems to be as comprehensive a measure as could have been expected from Congress at this time—though it may be that the landslide that put it through both houses indicates an opinion on the part of some members that any such law will be held to be unconstitutional and that in a presidential year it is cheap campaign material. But the majority voted in good faith, beyond doubt.

Briefly, the Sterling law provides that "every common carrier by railroad while engaging in commerce" that is clearly interstate (as distinguished from intra-state commerce with which it was so mixed in the old measure, said the court, as to be inseparable) shall be liability in damages for injury or death resulting in whole or in part from the negligence of any of its "officers, agents, or employes" or by reason of any defect or insufficiency in equipment. That is, the first section virtually limits liability to railroads and to those employes of railroads actually engaged in operating interstate trains. But on the other hand it aims to do away with the "fellow servant doctrine" entirely, as the previous law did, also.

The second section extends the liability to such jurisdictions as Congress has en-

tire control over. The next section lays down the doctrine of "comparative contributory negligence" in a slightly different form from the law of 1906: "The fact that the employe may have been guilty of contributory negligence shall not bar recovery but the damages shall be diminished by the jury in proportion to the amount of negligence attributable to such employe," provided contributory negligence is not to be considered at all against the employe where the safety appliance law has been violated. The fourth section does away with the doctrine of "assumption of risk" where the safety appliance law is violated.

Contracts to exempt railroads from liability are declared void, though the amount of the contribution of a railroad to such relief funds as are maintained, which has been paid to an employe, may be set off against the total damages. Actions must be brought in two years. Receivers and other corporations operating railroads are included in the term common carriers. Nothing in this act shall prejudice claims now pending under the act of 1906.

There were before Congress two other bills. That introduced by Senator Knox was the first in the field. The Sterling bill followed it in point of time. The La Follette bill was the broadest of the three—including even a provision that twenty-five per cent of the judgment awarded should be added to the costs as an attorney's fee, and extending the provisions of the bill to all mail trains. Representative Sterling's bill was re-drafted after the hearings on the LaFollette bill in committee had shown its probable defects. It was reported out of committee

with only three members opposed, only one of whom voted against it on the floor, while in the Senate the vote was unanimous.

Just how the railroads are planning to meet it is not known but quite likely it will be attacked as class legislation, or as not looking toward the classification of employment while classifying employers, or on the ground that "master and servant" legislation is not regulation of interstate commerce. It was on these grounds that the railroad attorneys opposed it in committee. The labor representatives believed the LaFollette bill too broad in the two respects mentioned. The law as passed, therefore, seems, on its face, to be an honest effort to enact a law as broad as is likely to be declared constitutional and as nearly like the old law as is consistent with the doctrines laid down by the Supreme Court.

THE CLEVELAND MILK CONTEST

Cleaner and better milk for the consumer, valuable information and suggestion for the producer, and for the dealer assistance in determining where the good dairies are and how best to handle milk. These are the definite results of the annual milk contest which Cleveland held in March. The success of the first contest, last year, lent renewed and increased interest to this year's event.

The first national milk and cream contest under the direction of the dairy division, Bureau of Animal Industry, Department of Agriculture, was held in connection with the National Dairy Show in Chicago two years ago. Since this national contest several states, among them New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Massachusetts, have held similar exhibits. Cleveland, however, is the first city to carry such an enterprise through under the direction of the federal officials. The object of all these events has been to educate consumer, dealer and producer as to the importance of clean milk, and to afford the latter two groups the latest and best information concerning methods of production and handling.

Both the contests in the city of Cleve-

land have been held in the large hall of the Chamber of Commerce, under the auspices of that body. Upon a carefully scored contest, medals were given for the best counts in the following three classes: Market milk, market cream, and the condition of dairy farm. It is significant that the prizes in the last class were awarded according to the greatest improvement in condition and methods made during the past year as determined by the official records of the City Milk and Meat Inspection Department.

The program of addresses included topics concerning the relation of the government dairy officials and the City Health Department to the producers and consumers of milk. A very practical feature of this year's contest was its bearing upon the proposed Ohio legislation for the improvement of dairy conditions, particularly with regard to feeding. This had special reference to conditions in Cincinnati, where it has been the common practice to feed cows on wet distillery waste. The proposed law is designed to prohibit the sale of milk derived from cows so fed.

One of the very great gains from the Cleveland contests has been the better understanding between the dairymen and dealers and the City Inspection Department. Opposition to the latter has practically ceased, and inspection is now sought and welcomed. Friendly rivalry has been developed among the dairymen, the visit of the inspector is anticipated, his suggestions are appreciated and usually promptly followed, and his subsequent visits result in a higher score for the dairymen generally. The dairymen are now proposing a system of permits classified as 1 or 2, according as the dairies score above or below a specified number of points. It is evident that much good would result if other cities should undertake to hold similar clean milk contests.

DENMARK'S OLD AGE PENSION

The Old Age Pension Act has been in force in Denmark since 1891. An enormous reduction in the percentage of the population in workhouses has taken

place in the last ten years. Pensions are granted to all needy applicants of sixty years and upward who have had no relief except hospital treatment for ten years. At the end of 1901 there were 60,000 persons or twenty-two per cent of the population above the age limit receiving pensions. Thirteen thousand of these had dependent families. The system is non-contributory for individuals and is administered by very few officials, and the administrative cost is very small. The Danish government adds \$500,000 annually to the sum provided by the parishes for the relief of the aged.

In Copenhagen, where the cost of living is highest, the average pension for married couples is nine pounds five shillings, and seven pounds nine shillings for a single person. Figures for other towns are nine pounds to seven pounds, and in rural districts three and one-half to five pounds. These are annual sums.

The local authorities fix the amount of the annuity and make no deduction for other income up to five pounds eleven shillings. Pensions may be received in kind or in cash, or recipient may be received in a home for the aged. Institutions for the aged have always abounded in Denmark, being entered on the payment of a small fee. The act of 1891 caused these to be largely extended, especially in Copenhagen. The chief defect in the system seems to be in the discretionary power of the local authorities, who fix the amounts of pensions. In some parishes the amounts received are nearly double those in others. As the law stands, the pension must be sufficient in amount to support the person relieved. It is granted on the principle that the less a man has, the more he should receive.

CLEVELAND'S PLAYGROUND COMMISSION

Following a preliminary study of playground conditions in Cleveland, and considerable agitation for a definite and comprehensive policy, Mayor Tom L. Johnson has recently appointed this Playground Commission, Chairman, Daniel E. Leslie, of the Board of Public Service; secretary, George W. Ehler, super-

visor of physical training, public schools; W. D. Sayle, Board of Education; M. A. Fanning, president of the Catholic Federation; Rabbi Moses J. Gries, Rev. Gilbert P. Jennings and Howard Woolston, of Goodrich House Social Settlement.

The purpose of the commission is to make a thorough study of the general playground situation, suggest new locations, recommend the lines of activity to be pursued by the Board of Education and the private institutions interested in playground work, consider types of playgrounds for varying purposes and suggest a comprehensive policy of co-operation, equipment and supervision.

For some time the playground interests of Cleveland have been under consideration informally by the Social Service Club, and by a committee of the Chamber of Commerce. These two bodies viewed the situation in essentially the same way, and the report of the Chamber of Commerce committee may be said to represent the opinions of practically everyone who has given careful thought to the subject. First, it states vividly and concisely the problem of providing for the play of the city child—how the fields and woods and other opportunities for recreation are lacking in the city; how the country and larger parks are too far away, and the yards are too small. The street restricts physical liberty to such an extent that normal play encroaches on others' rights, and thus becomes an offense frequently involving arrest. "To the child, then, a good time becomes that which invades the rights of others and escapes the detection of the police, and the ultimate attitude of the child comes to be that anything which is not detected is right. This can be but a training school for crime." The establishment of play spaces is not sufficient, since it simply enables the training of the street to be transferred to the playground. "On the street the chief occupation was invading the rights of others, and, since that possibility is here removed, it becomes an invasion of the rights of one another. The younger and weaker children are crowded out and the same supremacy of brute force remains." Hence the need for careful supervision.

The present condition of Cleveland

playgrounds is summarized as follows: Playgrounds conducted by the Board of Education, three; by the Board of Public Service, nine; by private welfare institutions, six. Except at the settlements, these playgrounds are open only during the summer. There is no plan of co-operation, and consequently there is danger of duplication, unwise selection of property and waste of money.

The suggested policy involves:

1. School playground. Over 100 public and parochial school and institutional playgrounds are available for the use of small children. The radius of efficiency of each will probably not exceed four or five blocks. They should be equipped and properly supervised and should be open daily after school hours.

2. Neighborhood play centers. Fifteen or twenty tracts of from one to two acres of public and parochial school yards and city property suitable for boys and girls up to twelve years of age, are available. Each of these would serve a territory of about one-half mile radius; the equipment and supervision should be more elaborate than for the foregoing group, and they should be open outside school hours and on holidays and during vacations.

3. Recreation centers. In order to serve larger boys and girls and adults, there should be a number of centers of from five to twelve acres each, located in congested districts. These should be of sufficient size to provide opportunity for the group games of boys and young men, and the establishment and conduct of social centers having a field house with auditorium, branch library, club rooms, swimming pool, refectory, baths, gymnasium, athletic fields and the like. Such recreation centers should be open day and night the year around, and should be under the direction of physical directors, kindergartners and other workers of adequate training having a broad social outlook. The effective radius of these centers would be possibly one mile. One or two of these tracts need be equipped only as athletic fields, with proper enclosures and stands and bathing facilities for the use of schools, athletic organizations, etc. Some of these might well be located upon park property. An enclosed athletic field, with grand stand, should be established on some park property to be used at the discretion of the Board of Public Service by the Board of Education, the parochial schools, and the athletic organizations, for large games and track meets.

MINNEAPOLIS FOR INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

That Minneapolis is alive to the need of broadening the public school curri-

culum is evident from the interest manifested at two recent meetings called to discuss industrial education and trades schools. About 500 representative people met at the call of the Board of Education, and 125 persons gathered for further discussion. This was the most representative meeting recently held in Minneapolis. There were present representatives of every educational movement and institution, organized labor, manufacturers, every profession, the associated charities, settlements, churches, park board, councilmen, women's clubs, and others, including Mayor Haynes.

Prof. D. Lang of the St. Paul High School outlined the industrial schools of Germany or the continuing schools as they are called. He took the stand that our elementary schools should give a vocational training to every child, and urged that this should be just as much a part of our educational scheme as vocational training for doctors, lawyers, preachers and engineers. But he declared emphatically, "such schools must not be made schools for strike breakers."

The principal speaker of the evening was superintendent Harvey of the Menominee, Wis., schools. Our problem, he said, was to plan the best education for the ninety-two children in the United States out of every 100 who leave school either before or after the eighth grade. These ninety-two children must earn their living for the most part by their hands. He made a very clear distinction between trade schools and industrial schools, and said he did not believe in the former. As for the manufacturers' trade schools, he claimed those were organized to turn out product and not to educate the youth. He urged the extension of manual training and domestic training in the public grade schools which he showed is a clear business proposition for it would decrease the occupancy of our jails and cut down the police forces. This broad industrial training while not teaching directly a trade would make for efficiency in the trade. There is much talk about the chief thing in life being to make a good man, said Prof. Harvey, but "the first essential of American citizenship is to

make a living, you must make a living to make a life." In Menominee fifty per cent of the high school pupils are boys. All but two boys from the grade this year entered the high school. Last year every boy did.

Representatives of organized labor followed Prof. Harvey, and every man claimed that his union would endorse industrial education as outlined by the two speakers. There seemed to be, however, a lurking fear that these schools might be used to train a strike-breaking force, and as such organized labor would be unqualifiedly opposed to trade schools. Several of the labor leaders pleaded for night industrial schools where the apprentices might learn the principles of their trade. An apt illustration of the need was given by the representative of the Painters and Decorators' Union. "What do you think," he said, "one of our boys came to me and asked this question: 'What is sheel-ac made of?' I thought he was fooling. 'No,' he said, 'we are having a discussion up stairs.'"

Minneapolis has already a two years' course in manual training in her grade schools and a good course in sewing and cooking. If the signs of the times are right, the school tax must be increased instead of diminished.

GEORGIA TO HAVE JUVENILE STATE

A few years ago when the Georgia State Reformatory Committee made an investigation of the offenses for which children were imprisoned, often with hardened criminals, children were found who had played on revolving doors, who had ridden on passing trains, who had only lost their way from home, who were epileptic, who had been hunting game on posted lands. The report made a deep impression. One of its results is the Juvenile State in Jackson county, Georgia, six miles from Athens, incorporated under the name of the Juvenile Protective Association. It provides not only for the creation and equipment of the institution, but for the establishment of juvenile courts and for adequate legislation in safeguarding the delinquent

children of the state. It is to be along the general lines of the George Junior Republic, with complete self-government through minor bodies, a legislature and on up to the Supreme Court where for the first time adults take charge in the persons of Judge W. R. Hammond, Dr. W. W. Landrum, Clifford L. Anderson, W. S. Witham, E. C. Callaway and Crawford Jackson.

While the original plan of the Juvenile State provides only for incorrigible children, some are to be accepted, so it is said, from parents whose children cannot be thus described but who will be benefited, they think, by the self-government training of the organization. Separate departments for girls and for Negro children are to be added later, it is hoped. Among the industries will be shoe-making, tailoring, laundering, blacksmithing, carpentering, printing, with a newspaper, and varied farming.

Describing the industries, Crawford Jackson writes:

We shall act on the principle that what a boy imitates and practices is the thing in which he is likely to excel. Let him mirror the various aspects of real life and his thoughts begin to grapple with the problems of real life. We will have him imitate being a farmer, a carpenter, a shoemaker, and so on. If he has a gift for writing he may write for our paper. Some boys who may have a taste for law can go out from the Juvenile State with a practical idea of how courts operate. Classes are to be taught along with the industrial features so that a certain amount of education may be secured. Sometimes it appears that to send a boy through school and college without letting him know what his life work is to be is a waste of energy.

Libraries for Children

Mae G. Quigley

Children's Librarian of the Grand Rapids Public Library

The children's department of the Public Library of Grand Rapids, Mich., in addition to its regular work has charge of a series of memorial libraries for sick and crippled children. The first one which the library received, was given by the late John Patton who was at the time president of the Library Commission. It was in memory of his son,

Philip Sidney Patton. From the experience gained in reading to his own sick boy, Mr. Patton conceived the idea of making up a box of books which would interest children from eight to fourteen years. Others seeing the value and need of this work, gave boxes.

These boxes are attractive in appearance and form a handsome piece of furniture for any home to which they may be sent. The cost of the box depends largely upon the material used and the amount of exterior decoration. A fairly good box can be built for eight dollars and a much better one for twenty-five dollars. The cost of the books cannot be definitely stated as that depends largely upon the kind and number purchased. The boxes used in this library will accommodate about thirty-five books of average size.

In selecting the books great care and judgment must be exercised. Good picture books, easy reading, and books for older boys and girls must be provided if the box is to be a success. Then, too, the books must be healthful in tone if they are to carry a message of good cheer to the little sufferers. The choosing of the books has been left largely to the children's librarian. The boxes are sent for a period of two weeks to children recovering from non-contagious diseases or those suffering from broken bones or similar accidents which make them "shut-ins." Nearly all the children are visited by the children's librarian, except those in hospitals (who avail themselves largely of this privilege whenever the boxes are not in use in the homes), in order to keep in touch with them and also to get the child's point of view with reference to the books sent. This personal touch is of the greatest value, both to the library and to the child. The coming of the box is usually an event in the neighborhood, and it is found that it carries the message of good books not only to the little sufferer but

to many of his friends. There was one place in particular where this was very noticeable. The box had been sent to a boy suffering from a broken leg. His home was at the end of a short alley, and all the children, living in or near the alley were his friends, about fifty in all. When the box arrived, about twenty-five children appeared to see the books. Soon the little, overheated sitting room was too small and the kitchen was pressed into service as a reading room. How sorry the friends were when Henry was well enough to go back to school. "We are glad he is better, but we liked those books so much"—in fact one boy wished he might have a broken leg so he could have the box.

Oftentimes the coming of the box reveals cases of affliction wholly unknown to one of good health and pleasant surroundings. Not long ago three boxes were sent to a boy whose lower limbs are paralyzed. He had had the first one about a week before he was visited. It was a picture never to be forgotten, when his mother carried him into the room, put him down on a chair, and said, "Here is my boy, this is Arthur." The sight of his sad face and deformed body was enough to make one wonder if he would ever find any happiness in this great world. He began at once to talk about the books and told which he liked best, his face brightening with a smile as he said, "The 'funny' man's book—wait, I will tell you the name, the Wizard of Oz." By this time Arthur had lost some of his shyness and talked not only about the books, but about the man who had made possible this noble work. On every hand we hear, not only from the children but from parents and friends as well, words of gratitude and praise.

Those who originated this work will never know until the day of final reckoning, just how much happiness they have given those less fortunate than themselves.

Social Opportunities of New York City High Schools

David Snedden

Teachers' College, Columbia University

It will be generally conceded that the high schools of New York city are generously supported, that they have large faculties of well trained teachers and an abundance of equipment, that they draw their pupils largely from the families of wage earners and others of moderate incomes, that the large majority of the children who enter these schools will themselves become wage earners and business men and women, and that it is the desire of the administrative authorities that these schools should serve the largest possible number in the community.

In 1906-07 the nineteen high schools of Greater New York had a total enrollment of 33,387 and in the same year 1,713 pupils graduated and 403 received certificates of having completed commercial or technical courses, usually of three years. Of the graduates of the elementary schools of the city, 21,000 in number, considerably more than half—60 per cent—began work in the high schools. In the course of the year 14,527 pupils were admitted to these high schools, presumably nearly all to the first year. But during that year 6,708 pupils were discharged from the first year of the high school, or over 46 per cent of those entering, assuming that all entering went into the first year.

On June 30, 1907, there were on register in these high schools a total of 26,221 pupils, of whom 13,094 were in the first year, 7,184 in the second year, 3,981 in the third year, and 1,962 in the fourth year. To some extent these figures exaggerate the actual amount of withdrawal, as the attendance is increasing year by year, and naturally the increase is in the lower classes; but, making due allowance for that, there can be no doubt that the large majority of children who enter the high schools do not complete more than two years of residence. Out of the total enrollment given above, in the

year 1907, 9,141 pupils were discharged from the first two grades alone. The relatively small number of graduates also points to a very large withdrawal in the early years of the high school course.

High school authorities are accustomed to deplore this large withdrawal and to assign as explanatory various reasons which show that they regard it as abnormal and unfortunate. With the exception of the three-year commercial and technical courses mentioned above which are not yet largely attended, the courses in the high schools are primarily designed to prepare students for admission to college. The heavy part of the work of the first two years of this course consists of one or more foreign languages and mathematics, both of which studies are treated entirely as preparatory to subsequent work. Naturally it is looked upon as a misfortune that so many pupils should embark on these serious studies, only to drop them in a year or two. Very few educators will have the hardihood to defend the proposition that the first two years of an ordinary college preparatory course is a very profitable investment of time for the pupil who takes nothing more. Within these first two years there is little opportunity for election, and almost none of the work given, either along cultural or other lines, tends to function at all for the pupil who does not go farther in the course.

In the matter of large withdrawals New York city is not unique. In recent years the number of children entering high school throughout the United States has increased enormously, until to-day it may safely be said that America has more children in school of from fourteen to eighteen years of age, in proportion to population, than any other country. In 1889-90 the number of children registered as attending public high schools in the country at large was 36 per cent of the total population; in 1905-06 the per-

centage had risen to 88, or, including the children studying at private secondary schools, over one per cent of the population was taking secondary education. But a fairly accurate estimate shows that of the 742,000 pupils in public high schools, approximately 43 per cent are in the first year, 26 per cent in the second, 18 per cent in the third, and 13 per cent in the fourth. In other words, the number of pupils in the last two years is less than one-half that in the first two years.

For this condition of affairs many causes are assigned, but is it not probable that the high schools, attracted by their more conspicuous mission of fitting a few students for college, have quite lost sight of certain large social facts involved in the rapid increase of attendance on their schools? Are not the following suppositions probably true in the main:

To an increasing extent the attendance in the high schools is composed of the children of the more substantial classes of wage earners who desire that their children, after graduation from the elementary school, shall not at the still tender age of fourteen enter industry, but who also do not wish them to spend the precious years from fourteen to sixteen in idleness.

The most satisfactory age at which most children, both boys and girls, can make their beginnings in vocational learning and self-support is at or near sixteen; hence, even in the case of children who are doing fairly well in high school, that age brings withdrawal, partly to learn a vocation, partly to relieve the family of further support of the child in the high school.

Many parents who make considerable sacrifices to keep their children at high school (a moderate estimate of the cost of keeping a child in high school for four years is \$1,000, apart from what the child would earn during that time if he were employed; a heavy load for a wage earner) know comparatively little of the probable worth of a secondary education, but after the child has been a year or two in the school, unless he makes a distinguished record, the parents are apt to feel that the work has little significance for one who is not going to college or aiming at commercial life.

May it not be true that justifiable reasons for early withdrawal from high school are to be found in more cases in New York city than elsewhere? For one thing, we know that in this city parents of considerable means usually send their

children to private schools; hence it is probable that of the 30,000 and more pupils last year enrolled in our public high schools, an unusually large number came from homes where it is by no means financially easy to keep a child at school. Again, if the great majority of these boys and girls are ultimately destined to enter industry and commerce, is it not probable that for many of them both the opportunity and the necessity to begin such work at or about the age of sixteen are more immediate in this city than in other communities? It seems to be unquestioned that a great number of children feel at this age the strong pressings of instinct and custom to get into some vocation. But most of the work taken in the high school seems to have no bearing on vocation; hence, with the earning instinct strong, is it not natural that boys and girls both should forsake the high school for the apparently more real activities of apprenticeship and wage earning?

If these considerations be valid, does not a great social opportunity lie before the magnificent secondary schools of New York in making adjustments to meet more fully than they do now the genuine educational needs of the class of children under consideration? If we think of a large army of boys and girls—the most capable from the elementary school—expectantly entering our high schools at the average age of fourteen, to stay approximately two years (for with proper educational treatment certainly this class could be induced to stay that long) is it not possible for the faculties of these schools to devise more profitable courses of work along cultural, vocational, social and physical lines, than that now found in the prescriptive programs of foreign language, mathematics, and classical English? All students of adolescence concede that children from fourteen to sixteen are highly educable, not merely or mainly along vocational, but along social, cultural and other lines as well. These children must become citizens; it is hoped that they will be lifted somewhat above the cultural level of their present environment; and it is highly desirable that, social and cultural ends be-

ing measurably met, they should enter on their vocations with as much industrial intelligence and previous preparation in skill as possible.

In view of the facts of high school attendance and withdrawal as found in New York city, the writer is of the opinion that the schools should promptly divest themselves of certain traditions and proceed to devise educational programs more suited to the classes with whom they have to deal. As a basis for discussion leading to the formulation of a positive program, the following propositions are submitted:

In view of the evidence now available it is very doubtful if two years of the present prescriptive program for the student who then drops out is educationally worth while. Even if we assume that these two years spent in making the beginnings of an ancient or modern language (and in one high school pupils are practically debarred from choosing the modern language rather than Latin), mathematics, classical English, and ancient history, with the beginnings of a second foreign language almost inevitable in the second year, are of some educational value, it would certainly be hard to prove that for the pupil taking but two years these are more valuable than other lines of study that he might pursue. This does not in any way tend to deny that for students actually going to college the courses prescribed in the high schools may be the best that could be devised. But it is contended that the traditions of college preparation now rigidly enforced in our wage earners' high schools result in withholding from the majority of boys and girls entering these schools the kinds of education that would be best suited to them.

The schools should provide several kinds of two-year courses which would carry boys and girls from the average age of fourteen to an average age of sixteen. In order to procure a proper content for these courses it would be necessary for us to think less of the traditions of secondary education and much more of the cultural, social and vocational needs of the classes of boys and girls with whom the schools have to

deal. These are the children of wage earners; they will become largely wage earners themselves; they have average ability and average interests, which may have little concern with the traditional lines of secondary education. But they have genuine cultural needs, they can be measurably prepared for citizenship and social living, they can be improved physically and made hygienically intelligent, and they can receive some preparation for useful vocations.

The results of experience now available show that at least four types of such courses could be provided: A general culture course, with relatively few vocational elements; a course primarily of business practice, designed for the army of boys and girls who enter commerce as apprentices; a course centering around the industrial arts which contribute something to the industrial experience, skill, and intelligence that will be needed in the occupations which boys enter; and one or more courses centering around the household arts which girls are likely to follow, possibly including preparation for girls' trades, if it is evident that this can be done.

The content of the two years' general culture course should be organized primarily for the average type of city children, having only two years for school. This education should keep three guiding aims in view, and probably meet each by the use of specially selected material: First, physical well-being, fostered not merely by gymnasium exercises, and lectures on hygiene, but by a face-to-face study of and experience with the conditions of wholesome living. Surrounding our city schools are surely unnumbered possibilities of realizing this end. One of the standing reproaches against present secondary education is that its graduates are as ignorant as small children of the conditions of hygiene, dietetics, public sanitation, prophylaxis, the economic cost of disease, modern bacteriology, and similar topics. The present course in biology in the New York high schools, which is one of the best things in the curriculum, contributes something; but the subject should be approached, for the types of children here

thought of, less as a scientific subject, and more as a group of the arts of living, thus giving it practical significance. Second, social efficiency, in the narrow sense of awareness of civic and moral responsibility, and intelligence to meet the same. This, again, must be studied largely in the very complex social environment in which the children live. Where can the teacher of fifteen year old children, whose aim is to make them as soon as possible effective members of the community, find a richer environment than that of New York, with its wealth and its poverty, its public ownership, its conditions of social control, its division of labor, its industrial groups, and its assimilation of many nationalities? The elementary schools are now doing some of this civic training very effectively, by objectifying the community; why should not the high school, with its responsive adolescents, do much more? Third, personal culture, taken, for this purpose rather narrowly. Literature, history, science, music, art—these are undoubtedly the chief sources. Music is now given in the high schools, and as the subject is not taken as preparatory for college, much of it seems well adapted to the needs of students. Art should be approached more in the spirit of appreciation, for these pupils, than for the mastery of technique. What can be done? The city contains good galleries; can pupils see something of these and be taught to utilize their contents; can these pupils be so taught as to secure higher standards in use of ordinary pictures; can some use be made in their case of art journals, and the illustrations in magazines? In other words, is it possible for the teacher to work up materials for a course in art appreciation for the children who will enter unartistic industrial work at sixteen and thereafter have no further school training? For this class of children certainly the possibilities of literature teaching are also very great; will the teachers see that the material chosen and the methods of presentation are such as will bring the children to a better appreciation of the literature and reading by which they will be surrounded, and leave them in a condition to demand the slightly

better rather than the slightly worse? Should not the teacher deal much with the best of current magazines and newspapers? Should she hold aloof from the current fiction, in view of the certainty that it will form the staple reading after these boys and girls leave school? Have we not kept our pupils in a foreign land in this matter of high school literature, to the exclusion of those things which are germane to the life they lead, and which tend genuinely to function in it? This is no defense of the poor and cheap in literature or art; it is simply a statement of the now accepted pedagogical truth that education proceeds most effectively by utilizing the best materials of the environment in such a way as best to fit the pupil for the environment in which he will spend his adult life. Again, take history as a culture subject; shall it be for these children a chronological examination of the ancient and remote, history study that actually seldom functions in the lives of these pupils, or shall it be rather more a study of the history which is even now in the making, the current events and reports, interpreted, corroborated, discussed? For civic and cultural purposes it is highly urgent that these people should live in close sympathy with and intelligent appreciation of that which takes place from day to day; shall not the school, by its intelligent use of material, give the boys and girls a genuine foundation for their adult activities in the social field?

In the business course for boys and girls, the emphasis should be on the vocational studies; but place should be found for some opportunities for development of physical well-being, social efficiency, and culture. We know on the basis of the experience of private schools that this can be done. We know that the business student can be made to find in the related industrial history, in the current history of commerce and industry, in science as it affects his field, and in contemporaneous literature the keenest of interest, to say nothing of geography and economics. It is wrong to allow a boy or girl to give his entire time to a purely vocational pursuit, for we are expecting to make the man or

woman who is not only vocationally efficient, but who is a citizen, and a cultured person besides, but it is quite possible to achieve this while still making the vocational end the chief one.

We know little about trades education as that may be adapted to youth under sixteen; but we do know that the right types of courses in industrial arts will attract and hold students, good beginnings having been made in this direction. Manual training has suffered from formalism hardly less than mathematics and literature; but the coming manual training (better named industrial arts) will be more real to the student and its results will function in industrial intelligence and appreciation and give him a basis of selection for the more specifically vocational education which will follow. And around the course in industrial arts must be correlated those studies or activities which minister somewhat to the ends of physical well being, social efficiency, and culture of the personal sort.

Apart from the business course, it is possible that the two years' high school work should provide two courses along vocational lines especially for girls; one, in the ordinary household arts of cooking, sewing, serving, nursing, carried more intensively and to higher levels than is possible in the elementary schools; and the other in certain basal studies and practices for women's trades and factory work. What these can be is still uncertain; a few lines of technical work have succeeded admirably as private ventures; but whether many can be found is to be decided by experiment. But here, again, as in the excellent trades schools for girls now found, some forms of cultural and social education may easily be kept alive, if we break loose from tradition in deciding what these shall be; and certainly for this class the larger hygiene of the body may not be neglected.

It will be objected that when children enter the high school they do not know what they can do, or when they will leave. As far as present facts are concerned, this objection is largely a guess; and it loses still more weight if we consider the feasibility of informing parents and pupils as to the possibilities

of various courses, so that intelligent choice can be made. Do the high school authorities know whether there is any connection between the kind of scholarship exhibited by the pupil in the elementary school, and the probability of his dropping out of the high school? Do they know whether the economic condition of the family (as measured, *e. g.*, in rent paid) bears any regular relation, statistically considered, to school mortality (*i. e.*, withdrawal) in the high school? Do they know how much of withdrawal is caused by the non-functioning studies of foreign language and mathematics? Can they assert that if these conditions were studied, we should not find a number of standards on the basis of which parents and pupils could be advised in the selection of their courses?

Assume in the high school system separate schools, or, preferably, large schools with varied courses under the same roof, these embracing two or more college preparatory courses of four years, two or more vocational courses of four years, and the variety of two year courses suggested above. Assume that a carefully prepared pamphlet or book, attractively prepared by people not only interested in education, but some of whom know the demands of industry as well, is distributed to parents. Suppose this supplemented by a series of carefully prepared lectures on educational and industrial opportunities, addressed to parents who might be interested in the education of their children. To this add information which might be procured from teachers in the elementary schools as to the capacities of individual pupils. In the high school, provide that each pupil shall come under a special adviser, who will examine his records, counsel with him, give him opportunity to express his ambitions and tastes, taking into account the economic condition of the home and the wishes of parents. Is it too much to assume that if all this were done (it has never been given genuine trial) in the majority of cases that adjustment of the pupil could be made which would be profitable in the long run? Expensive, and time consuming, yes; but have we

given enough thought to the human waste involved in the thousands of pupils who struggle along a year or two in our high schools only to arrive at the conviction that the high school is too difficult or too meaningless for them and who drop disheartened by the educational wayside, and who have received nothing which can be regarded as even a slight return for the time and money expended? If it is worth while to maintain the most expensive secondary school system found in any city of the world, would it not be still more worth while to expend considerable effort in providing the means for the better adjustment to it of the various kinds of groups with which it must deal?

Would the two year courses divert too many pupils from college preparatory work for which they are really fitted? If American parents constantly tend to send more pupils to such high school courses as are available, and if they actually do send year by year more of their children to college, it is hard to see where any room lies for the objection. If in January and June of 1904, 10,157 pupils entered the high schools as now organized, and in 1907 only 1,713 were graduated (besides 403 certificated, who probably entered a year later), it is extremely doubtful if any system of short courses could cut down the actual number of graduates.

To sum up:

The high rate of withdrawal from the New York high schools indicates failure of adjustment on the part of these to the needs of large numbers of boys and girls.

The high schools have failed in their

duty to the entire community in their devotion to the interests of the small percentage of children who go to college.

The one or two years' high school study taken by those who then drop out is a very unprofitable expenditure of time and energy.

The obvious next step in providing a remedy lies in developing courses, tentatively two years in length, which will provide for the children of large groups of people of moderate incomes.

These courses must embrace cultural elements in greater or less degree according to the genuine demands or needs of the children; they must give some genuine preparation for social living; they must take account of the needs of physical education; and they should make adjustments to vocational needs where practicable.

Aided by as full information and advice as possible, parents and pupils must be left free to choose what courses shall be taken, subject only to the condition now imposed that the scholarship qualification for each course shall be met. This is essential to democracy in education.

In providing the educational content for these short courses, secondary school traditions must be largely abandoned, and teachers selected who are willing to experiment in providing suitable material, and in devising new types of textbooks and outlines.

In small high schools the adjustments indicated above may not be feasible; certainly they are in the large schools in this city, with faculties sometimes of more than one hundred, and many facilities for adjustment.

The Trend of Things

A few days ago the residents of upper Riverside Drive pulled up their curtains in the morning to find that while they had been sleeping a billboard advertising company had taken possession of an unsightly high board fence surrounding a large vacant building lot. Visions arose of highly colored liquor advertisements varied with announcements of the latest Broadway theatrical productions, and the offended riverside dwellers decided that the billboard must come down. The billboard men say that they have paid for their privilege and on that ground they stand. All of which goes to show that a community awakes quickest to the need of improvement when that need is brought closest home. Probably that is the strongest reason why hurrying Americans take so little general interest in making some portions of their cities more attractive,—they are not directly affected, why should they? The subway and tunnel stations in New York with their hideous advertisements are examples of the need for popular education in harmony and public orderliness. *The Outlook* for April 18, commenting on this point, says:

"The suggestion has been made by the president of the American Civic Association that the advertising spaces in the tunnel stations be purchased in perpetuity, or at least for a term of years by the city, which has neglectfully disregarded its opportunity to prevent this extension of facilities for the wrong education of the people. The Pennsylvania capitol has in its floor the unique Mercer historical tiles, preserving a record of the times and the state. If the Keystone state can thus place its memorials in the floor where all may see them, it is asked why Greater New York cannot work into the walls of these tunnel stations even more imperishable records of its life and its times? Rookwood borders are provided; why not have placed in these spaces a series of Rookwood tiles, akin to those shown in the Fulton street subway station, thus suggesting history instead of corsets and drug, and the genius of New York rather than beer and breakfast foods? Whether or not this suggestion is feasible, it may certainly be pointed out that other tunnels are approaching completion and other stations will be built and furnished. If travelers under the North River must endure the signs, cannot a better way be found for the stations feeding the East River tubes? The wrong education should not continue; the better day of harmony and public orderliness, free from the special privilege which assaults the eye with commercial appeal when it needs rest and repose, must soon dawn."

* * *

Arthur Ruhl contributes the first of three articles describing the case of an idle workman to the April 18 issue of *Collier's*. The attitude of a great many men whose work is sure to hold out, rain or shine, is the attitude described by Mr. Ruhl of the man who

"accepts the 'panic' as a necessary periodical evil—although quite ready to admit that its approach was as apparent as the final explosion of a boiler, when the water is low, safety-valve tied down, and coal piled on—this talk about unemployment means almost nothing.

"He does not understand it because he does not understand that even in the best of times there is a considerable class which, because of illness, accident, old age, and other causes, is unable to support itself by its own work, and must be helped, because he has no realization of the number of those—the class next above, laborers with families, longshoremen, drivers, and the like—whose normal condition is that of just keeping their heads above water and who are the first to go under when trouble comes; nor how desperately uncertain is the position of even workers of considerable skill and unquestioned industry, and how narrow the margin between comparative affluence and imminent starvation.

"You get up, here in New York, for instance, eat breakfast, read the paper, sally into the street for another day. The ashman is making his rounds, the hurdy-gurdy rippling in front of the house across the way; the 'L' train roars by at the end of the street. The city, big, buoyant, busy apparently, swings on its usual way. Just as many jam into the Subway express, the noon-day lunch is as hurried and unhygienic, the homecomers as weary, as persistently curious about each other, as apathetically amused over the evening edition cartoons, as yesterday or the year before.

"To be sure, more men than usual sidle up to you on the street and beg a 'few cents for something to eat.' A line a block long waits at night in Madison Square for free sandwiches and coffee, and the bread-line—one of New York's permanent institutions now, apparently, down at Broadway under the very shadow of Grace Church—is twice as long as in other years. But these men, as one knows from experience or has been carefully taught, are likely to be 'hoboes' and 'panhandlers' or worse. . . . Just as long as it can be definitely counted on that a free meal will be given away at a certain convenient spot in New York every evening, just so long will the parasitic class flock thitherward—their traveling and living expenses, by that one meal, just so much the less.

"To these quaint birds, with their ancient derby hats pulled down to their ears, their tangled beards, their half-munched, appealing crusts, 'lack of work' really means another of those momentary recurring twinges of the public conscience—the chance to prey on the vague notion that something is wrong and one ought to help, to get something for nothing even easier than before. No, the Broadway bread-line can scarcely be considered as significant of lack of work, distressing a social phenomenon as it may be."

* * *

Making Cripples and Dodging Taxes is the title of an article in *Collier's* for April 18, a true "human interest" story of two lawsuits in the courts of Chicago involving Walter Merritt and the International Harvester Company. Merritt lost an arm in July, 1907, while employed by the harvester company. Shortly after being discharged from the hospital the claim agent of the company called in Merritt and tried to persuade him to sign a "receipt" for \$50 that was an "absolute waiver and bar of all and every claim and demand I may have against said company of every name and description." Merritt showed the "receipt" to a lawyer, was advised to sue the International Harvester Company and after much litigation he has secured a chance of collecting \$7,500 from the company for the loss of his arm.

In his message to Congress on January 31, President Roosevelt had this paragraph:

"An employer's liability law does not really mean mulcting employers in damages. It merely throws upon the employer the burden of accident insurance against injuries which are sure to occur. It requires him either to bear or to distribute through insurance the loss which can readily be borne when distributed, but which, if undistributed, bears with frightful hardship upon the unfortunate victim of accident."

* * *

The *Réforme Sociale* has an interesting resumé of the two Prussian laws for the protection of homeless and otherwise unfortunate children which date from 1878 and 1900, and which outlined the policy and organized the details for their care. One characteristic difference is pointed out: the earlier law was engaged with the correction of defectives and delinquents; the later one in the prevention of those conditions giving rise to defects and criminality in youth. The law of 1900 takes cognizance of two types of abandonment; moral and physical. Up to the age of eighteen, the neglected youth of either sex is taken and educated at the public expense, either in a private family or in an institution fitted to the purpose.

Children are taken for any one of three causes: defects in the child, in the parents or absence of sufficient means to properly educate it. The more degraded types are carefully separated from those innocent of fault in whom habit is yet to assert itself, a plan justified amply by both reason and practice. The highly praiseworthy purpose of the new law is to save children found under dangerous moral surroundings from becoming criminal. The theory on which it advances contends that the younger the child is taken the better. Once the child comes under state protection it is never lost sight of, even though the home conditions later justify its return. The expense of their undertaking is borne by the commune with aid from the state; in general the latter pays

two-thirds. The parents are required to support the child if they are financially competent, otherwise the entire cost is a public charge.

There are two methods in vogue in Prussia. One takes the children into collective groups or colonies; the other puts them out in families. Each has its advantages. The collective system having many children, demands severer discipline, more formal treatment, hence, greater uniformity and monotony. The family system leaves the child in its natural environment, home life and necessitates less severity. It also affords a correspondingly larger play for the individuality of the child and a wider opportunity for the development of personality. One objection raised is that the system is too elaborate and the equipment too extravagant. It is suggested that greater simplicity would produce better results at much reduced cost.

During the first five years of the operation of this law 3,300 children have been taken care of and put under educational guidance. The cost to the communes has been \$6,000,000 or about forty dollars for each child.

Difficulties naturally present themselves. Among these are the obstacles met in attempts to find suitable families for the children and suitable occupation for the young people when they must leave the institution. However, the results seem entirely to justify the efforts and the expense.

* * *

American Health, announced as the official organ of the American Health League and published by the Committee of One Hundred, has issued Volume 1, Number 1, dated March. The magazine which consists of twelve pages and cover will be sent free to the members of the health league. It will serve primarily, so the editor states, as a means of communicating information regarding the work of the Committee of One Hundred to the several thousand persons now on its mailing list and incidentally to advance the cause of national health. Dr. Richard Cole Newton of Montclair, N. J., is editor. The first issue contains an article on the Committee of One Hundred by Professor Irving Fisher of Yale University, another by Dr. William H. Welsh of Johns Hopkins University on Federal Regulation of Public Health, and a third by Dr. John Pease Norton on Our National Wastefulness of Human Life. Volume 1, Number 1, lapses unconsciously into a bit of humor on page 11 where a statement that "the officers and directors of the Public Health Defense League were the following well-known gentlemen," is followed by a list containing the name of more than one woman.

* * *

The New York *Sun* for April 16, printed one of the best rejoinders to Father Curry's statement attacking East Side settlement work. David Blaustein, formerly head of the Educational Alliance, takes up the defense for the settlements and states that in

a community of about a half million people (the number on the East Side below Fourteenth street) there is pretty sure to be a grain of truth in almost anything that is said about it. Therefore any honest criticism of the settlements is welcome.

"I have lived among those people and I know them; they are my people. I know that the object of the settlement workers is without doubt a good one. This section is full of foreigners that have not had the advantages even of a common school education. Many of them are not familiar with their own rights of citizenship. They have found it hard to adjust themselves to new conditions. The main object of the settlement workers is to help them find the way to their new life.

"Among the rights of which the East Side people often are unaware is the right to use the parks and the playgrounds, and the right to benefit under better tenement house laws. They do not understand that they are entitled to all these things, and settlement workers help to inform them of their rights. While the workers in the settlements have often found it impossible to make progress with the older generation which is absorbed in the struggle for existence they have often turned to the younger generation. This generation they interest in the civic affairs of the neighborhood and in the social life.

"Tenement house life seldom affords opportunities for social life. The settlements offer to young people social advantages such as meeting rooms, debating clubs, dances and so on. The very fact that the people of the East Side are so heterogeneous makes it necessary to have common meeting places where they can come to understand each other. The schools do not furnish such meeting places. The schools give education, but not with special reference to the particular traits of individuals. . . .

"Father Curry makes the charge that the settlement workers have given the East Side a bad name. He says that in order to raise funds they have found it in their interest to describe the East Side in its darkest colors. To the best of my knowledge this is not done by settlement workers. It is no doubt true that the East Side has been exploited, but it is rather done by people that make writing their profession. . . .

"Father Curry's charges as a rule are not justifiable, but they contain a grain of truth inasmuch as there are some persons that pose as settlement workers in order to make capital out of it. It is utterly wrong to condemn the entire system because it has flaws. The solution of the problem as I see it lies in such development that each settlement shall do a work better designed to meet the needs of the people in its immediate neighborhood. At present, if a common charge can be made against all settlement work it is that it is not sufficiently homogeneous."

* * *

The *Minneapolis Journal* published in a recent issue the report of the medical examination of 710 pupils in the Franklin School of Minneapolis. In an editorial on the result of this examination the *Journal* said:

"The complete medical examination of 710 pupils in the Franklin school, which is printed in the *Journal* to-day, is but an enlarged edition of the partial report made some weeks ago. It shows the same class of facts over a greater area and, on the whole, indicates a satisfactory condition of health among the students. The examination, which was undertaken with some misgivings and some opposition on the part of parents, has been justified by the results and the objections of parents have been met and overcome by the delicacy and care with which the examinations were conducted.

"With the compilations and results set down it is unnecessary to deal again. The parents who were at first opposed to the plan appear to have been the greatest gainers by the examination. They have received invaluable information regarding slight physical defects which, taken in hand at once, will be made to disappear. As the principal remarks in his report: 'It should be so much a matter of concern to us to make the child stronger in his school work as to make him strong, healthy and happy.' The discovery and correction of defects have already contributed to this result in the Franklin school and will in others. The cards containing the examination results were taken in charge by a competent nurse who made personal visits to the homes and advised with the parents. The homes of 407 pupils were visited in this way and, as a result, 144 cases have received medical attention. Defective vision, defective teeth, enlarged tonsils and adenoids, stomach troubles and other ills were treated, with the result that the teachers already note an improvement in the health and work of the pupils."

Jottings

Provident Loan's New Building.—The Provident Loan Society of New York has begun work on a new central office building into which the executive offices, now in the United Charities Building, and the Fourth avenue loaning office, now in the Church Missions Building, will move about March 1, 1909. The site is on the north-west corner of Fourth avenue and Twenty-fifth street. The architects, Renwick, Aspinwall and Tucker, have designed the building in the style of the Italian renaissance. It will be four stories high, though it will appear to be but three, and it will be of fire-proof construction. It will front forty-five feet on Fourth avenue and will extend seventy-five feet west on Twenty-fifth street. The exterior will be of white marble and granite.

The Fourth avenue loaning office will occupy the main floor and basement. The main floor will be divided into departments for men and women and the construction will be up to the standard of modern banking houses. The vaults will be in the basement and provide largely increased storage facilities. Only one floor will be occupied at first by the executive offices. The other two floors will be rented until the growth of the society requires their use.

The steadily increasing business of the society has made the change of quarters necessary. In the first full year, 1904, one small loaning office sufficed for the society's transactions, their loans numbering 20,804, to the amount of \$377,845. Last year six offices made 283,045 loans which amounted to \$10,601,557. The officers for 1908 are: President, James Speyer; vice-president, Frank Tucker; secretary, Mortimer L. Schiff; treasurer, Otto T. Bannard; assistant to treasurer, Max G. Hopf.

On the executive committee are: Robert W. de Forest, Percy A. Rockefeller, V. Everit Macy, William Sloane and the president, secretary and treasurer of the society, *ex officio*.



The trustees are: Class of 1909, John S. Kennedy, V. Everit Macy, D. O. Mills, Percy A. Rockefeller, Cornelius Vanderbilt. Class of 1910, George F. Baker, John D. Crimmins, Charles F. Cox, Robert W. de Forest, David H. Greer. Class of 1911, Otto T. Bannard, James Speyer, Mortimer L. Schiff, William Sloane, J. Kennedy Tod.

Fourth C. O. S. Conference.—The fourth monthly conference of the Charity Organization Society, New York, was held in the United Charities Building on Tuesday. The general subject was the promotion of moral and social betterment. Rev. Lyman Abbott spoke on what he believed united effort among religious organizations could do to improve social conditions. The church, he stated, is more than a teaching force and religion is much more than a philosophy. It should re-understand that it is a working force. "If we are to come together as churches we must come together on a common agreement of what we shall do, not what we shall think. We cannot agree on creeds but we can agree on action."

Dr. Abbott believes that the greatest danger of charity organization societies is officialdom and that the remedy for officialdom lies in the infusion of personal life through the churches. The needs of the people should be met as realized by the people themselves. Dr. Abbott thinks that this vital need of getting into the conscious life of the people can best be met, in the future, by united churches which will take the responsibility of caring for the poor in their own districts under the leadership of an organized society.

Charles Sprague Smith, managing director of the People's Institute, spoke on educational influences, emphasizing the necessity for reform in the organization of school, university and church to meet present day needs. "At the People's Institute," he said, "we are educating the masses to believe in the reorganization of society on a basis of brotherhood."

Recreation and Amusement as Essential Factors in Social Betterment was John Collier's topic. Mr. Collier has recently made an investigation of cheap theaters and the results of his work appeared in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for April 11.

Social Forces

By the Editor

TWO IMPORTANT LEGISLATIVE INVESTIGATIONS

The New York legislature adjourned last week refusing to enact many of the measures which had been urged by Governor Hughes and justifying his curt expression of regret on the occasion of the customary call of the committees at the executive chamber. Among the bills which were enacted, however, there were two which deserve special mention here: that providing for a state legislative commission to investigate the methods and procedure now in vogue in the inferior criminal courts of New York, Rochester and Buffalo, and that creating a similar commission to investigate the condition of aliens, and the general subject of immigration so far as it is a matter for state rather than national concern.

Superficially it might appear that there would be reason for entrusting both of these subjects to the same commission. Undoubtedly the immigrant who is unfamiliar with English and with both the letter and the spirit of our laws and ordinances, is often an easy prey for shyster lawyers, and is at the mercy of any misrepresentatives of justice who may have petty authority in and about the courts. Substantial maladministration of justice falls more frequently and more heavily upon them than upon others, and this is therefore a subject which would naturally interest equally both of the new state commissions. There are in addition, however, numerous and not overlapping subjects for each. The treatment of the immigrant on his arrival on the mainland: employment bureaus, information bureaus, relief bureaus, lodging houses and transportation, are the obvious point of beginning for the Immigration Commission. Conditions in the camps to which they are taken for railway construction and other similar employment in which laborers live away from permanent homes, will require attention. Housing conditions in cities and towns with special attention to such matters as overcrowding, high rents, frequent moving and instruction as to the rights and duties of tenants under the tenement house act, the sanitary code and other laws and regulations, would seem to fall within the scope of this commission, and also conditions in factories and other places in which recently arrived immigrants are a conspicuous element. The extent to which our elementary schools and our night schools are adapted to the needs of resident aliens needs an inquiry, and it would be very enlightening if the commission could ascertain, with

reference to each of the more numerous classes of immigrants, to what extent and with what rapidity they are really becoming assimilated, to what extent they are actually mingling with one another and with the older, already assimilated elements of the population, to what extent they become permanent residents, to what extent they become citizens, to what extent and in what way they severally contribute to the welfare of the communities into which they come. Such inquiries, we repeat, would be enlightening, but they may be too delicate and arduous for a state commission which is expected to complete its labors within a year. The problem of the distribution of our newcomers, however, to rural communities and to the smaller cities, cannot be ignored even in the most cursory investigation or even in one directed most strictly towards practical ends. This is the problem of the congestion of population as it is presented in the cities of New York, and it is eminently fitting that the newly aroused interest in the evils of congestion can now find vent in the legislative inquiry into the local aspects of our great national problem of immigration.

Even more interesting is it to consider the field which opens before the commission which will investigate our court of special sessions and magistrates' courts.

Perhaps the best picture of the magistrates' court, ordinarily called the police court, for those who have not the opportunity or the courage to inspect the original, is in the chapter which deals with this subject in the sprightly volume called *The Prisoner at the Bar*, by Assistant District Attorney Arthur Train.

"No court," says Mr. Train, "has a more direct influence for good or evil, or for the creation of a respect or a disrespect for law. For an overwhelming majority of our citizens, particularly those of foreign birth or extraction, it is the only court of justice in existence." Without attempting to enumerate all the abuses which call aloud for relief in this poor man's court of appeals, we venture to reproduce from the volume to which we have referred one paragraph which will suggest to the thoughtful reader the root of them all:

The police court is the great clearing house of crime. Inasmuch as all persons arrested, whether innocent or guilty, are brought there together, they should naturally, so far as possible, be accorded the benefit of the doubt as to their guilt in the treatment which they receive. They are presumed to be innocent, and indeed many of them are, until a jury has declared to the contrary. However, the attitude generally taken towards a prisoner in a police court is that he is guilty and that it is useless for him to deny it, and he feels the discomfort and ignominy of his position far more at this stage of the proceedings than he does later, when he is accorded more individual importance. As a rule he is brought into a crowded, stuffy court where a vociferous pair of shyster lawyers are shouting at each other's witnesses and the magistrate is with difficulty trying to preserve order. A great throng of complainants, defendants, witnesses, policemen, lawyers and idlers fill the room, and the prisoner instantly becomes the centre of vision for all eyes as the officer leads him up to the clerk's desk and makes his formal accusation. The altercation in front of the magistrate is suspended long enough for the latter to "commit" the defendant, who instantly finds himself locked in a narrow cell where he must remain until some friend or relation has had an opportunity to reach a lawyer, secure a bondsman, and compass his release.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

MONEY AUTHORIZED FOR SEWERAGE INQUIRY

Some few years ago the New York State Legislature wisely enacted a law providing for a Metropolitan Sewerage Commission, and entrusted to it the study of the pollution of New York bay and tributary waters. The commission consists of four engineers and one physician, and is, therefore, a technical body. As politics do not figure in its make-up, it is competent to examine into and report on the important question entrusted to it.

Although the legislature had provided the machinery, it has not until the last session, just closed, voted to authorize the Board of Estimate to appropriate money for carrying out the undertaking. The information so far obtained points to a condition of affairs which may become intolerable in the near future unless some rectifying steps are taken.

Sewage disposal is a sanitary question about which there are some conflicting theories, due to lack of positive information. There is one thing, however, about which there is no diversity of opinion—that in any thickly populated community the question of sewage disposal is a public question second only in importance to that of water supply. In reality it is just as important as a pure water supply, but it has always been given a second place, because the introduction of a public water supply means the subsequent construction of a suitable system of sewerage.

The metropolitan district, or that populous territory surrounding the borough of Manhattan, contains about 5,500,000 people. This population is divided up into cities, boroughs, towns and villages

and, unfortunately, they are not all under one control, but some are in the state of New York and some are in New Jersey. Each one of these municipal divisions is at present acting on its own initiative, and taking care in some form or other of its own people without regard to its neighbors and without any co-operation toward the welfare of all. The immense quantity of sewage produced by all these people is practically emptied in its raw condition into the waters of New York bay and into the waters tributary to it.

The question at once arises: Can these waters digest this immense quantity of sewage; and, if they can digest it to-day, how long will it be before they become more than saturated? Roughly speaking, this is the question before the commission, and it has been found impossible to answer it without further investigation, on account of the lack of positive information with regard to the present condition of the waters and the effect which sewage has upon them.

It is commonly urged that the amount of sewage is small compared to the immense volume of water in the bay, and that the sewage is carried out into the ocean. It is known that these sayings are not true. Unfortunately, sewage floats and does not diffuse in the waters of the bay until a considerable period of time has elapsed after the time of discharge from the sewer outlet. This separation is caused by the difference in specific gravity between the raw sewage and salt water. Furthermore, the sewage when emptied on the ebb tide floats down toward Sandy Hook, but before it gets scattered into the ocean the tide changes

and the flood brings it back into the bay and the rivers.

The object of the commission is to investigate the condition of these waters, and, if necessary, to devise a comprehensive plan or policy by which the drainage of the metropolitan territory can be collected and disposed of without injury to public health. Protective work of a similar kind has been found necessary in Boston, Providence, Baltimore, London, Paris, Hamburg, Glasgow, Belfast, and many other large cities.

IMMIGRANT ARTS **AT GREENWICH HOUSE**

The native arts of the immigrant peoples in New York city will be exhibited at Greenwich House, 26 Jones street, under the auspices of the art committee of the Neighborhood Workers' Association, on May 27 and 28. The chief exhibits, it is expected, will be from the Greenwich Handicraft School and the Bohemian workers who are neighbors of Normal College Alumnae House and East Side House. The major part of the exhibits will be of textiles, covering a wide variety of materials and design from many countries. There will be not only the rugs and laces of Ireland and Italy, but the peasant costumes of many obscure provinces and a very complete collection of Jewish ceremonial robes and altar cloths. Brass and copper work, jewelry and wood carpentering and at least one elaborate piece of tapestry are expected. The exhibit may later be set up in other settlement houses. It will distinguish in its cataloguing between articles made abroad and articles made here by immigrant workers, in an endeavor to give sharp point to the cultural loss America suffers in failing to keep its newer workers busied at their oldtime looms and benches in place of power sewing machines—the object lesson which Chicago has daily before its eyes in the Hull House Labor Museum.

PARENTS AND **SOCIAL SERVICE**

Training for social service from the point of view of parents has occupied two of the meetings of the Women's Confer-

ence of the Society for Ethical Culture. The impetus for the discussion was furnished by chapter one of the Society for the Study of Child Nature, which devoted a number of meetings to developing the subject as it concerned children and young people. The training for social service of children up to sixteen years and the training of young people between sixteen and twenty were the main divisions of the topic. At the meetings of the Women's Conference, Professor Felix Adler discussed the training for social service and its educational value, and Dr. John R. Elliott treated the question from the point of view of the schools and colleges. Miss Wald spoke of the value of untrained, volunteer service both to the giver and to the settlement. Dr. John P. Peters of St. Michael's Church defined the social service demanded of the children and young people in his parish and the basis on which it rested; while Miss Elizabeth Williams, of the College Settlement, spoke of the need for trained, volunteer service.

Having defined the aim of all social service as the up-lifting of character and stated its reciprocal effect, the general conclusion was reached that so far as children are concerned, unless a distinct sacrifice were involved, either of time or pleasure, not necessarily of money, training had no value, as its only use could be found in its development of unselfishness. The serious dangers were pointed out of encouraging the association of children with those of other social classes where the spirit of such intercourse was not carefully guarded against the taint of snobbery. Unless carefully handled, such association might entirely frustrate the spirit of democracy. It was pointed out by Dr. Adler that the atmosphere of the home where satisfactory training could be given to the child in assisting those who needed its help, either in its own class or in its own neighborhood would bring about the most effective results. It is not essential that service be to persons of another class; it may be equally vital given to associates in the immediate environment.

Perhaps the most interesting point in the discussion was the emphasis of the need of specialized training for young

people. The untrained worker has no resource for meeting important problems. The indiscriminate leading of clubs and teaching of classes was condemned. It was stated that members of the organization would not place their own children for moral guidance in the care of young people with half-baked ideals, or under the guidance of instructors whose technical training was inadequate. Young people desiring to teach sewing should have, first, the knowledge of what they are teaching and of those whom they wish to teach. The sophistication of children in social settlements was discussed and ascribed to these inadequately equipped young leaders whose only means of appeal are the party, the theater, excursions to the park and gifts. Practical opportunities for securing proper training were indicated, and in conclusion it was advocated that the energy and good will which promote the desire in young people to be of service can and should be turned to advantage where special fitness is obtainable. Those requiring service having every right to demand the best, it is an injustice to impose anything else upon them.

NURSING REFORM FOR ALMSHOUSES

An investigation into the condition of the sick and infirm in almshouses, with a view to securing skilled nursing care for them, has recently been undertaken in Michigan by that untiring civic reformer, the Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane, who has inspired both the State Federation of Women's Clubs and the State Association of Nurses, to enter upon this campaign in a thorough-going way. Mrs. Crane has set on foot a general investigation of every almshouse in the state of Michigan on a certain day, and has issued a printed form for tabulating the information to be asked for, which is of an exhaustive character. The County Federation of Women's Clubs of Lenawee county has just succeeded in getting an appropriation from the supervisors of the poor for a nurse in that county.

It is Mrs. Crane's hope that the State Federations of Women's Clubs will take

up this subject in other states, and, counting also on the support and help of nurses, she laid the needs of the almshouses before them at the annual meeting of the Associated Alumnae in June, last year, at Richmond. The response of the nurses was very encouraging, and a committee was formed whose chairman is Miss L. L. Dock, to solicit the aid of the nursing body in investigations, in order that reliable data may be gathered to prove the need of bringing trained nurses into the almshouses. The nurses are well organized in state societies, and, at the time of writing, twenty-three states have undertaken almshouse visitation and have distributed blank census forms to their members. Mrs. Crane, in the meantime, intends to continue her propaganda before the women's clubs.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS IN LAWRENCE, MASS.

Lawrence was the first city in Massachusetts to establish under the Commission on Industrial Education, in a building devoted entirely to that work, an industrial school managed by a local body entirely independent of existing school authorities. An appropriation of \$5,000 has been made by the City Council, and an equal amount by the state under the supervision of the State Commission on Industrial Education.

The school is the direct outgrowth of a smaller local institution organized in September, 1898, by the Loom-Fixers' Union of Lawrence. This school which began in a small way, was originally limited to members of the union, and its equipment was largely the result of gifts by interested manufacturers. Several times in its career it outgrew the quarters provided until finally it was able to purchase an old church, the basement of which was used for machinery, and the main floor for class rooms. There were classes in designing, weaving, loom construction and mill arithmetic.

During the last three years it came strongly to the attention of William H. Dooley that the well established Lowell textile school was unfavorable for Lawrence operatives both on account of its

distance and because of the difficulty many of them had in passing entrance examinations. A consultation with manufacturers and labor men led to plans by which the Lawrence Loom Fixers' School became the nucleus of a textile school of wider scope. As a result it was opened to all workers whether members of the union or not, and administered by an independent board. This throwing open of the doors of the school to non-union members resulted after a long discussion, and was typical of the attitude which union men in the textile trades have taken toward the movement. Other unions have raised money in various ways to equip the school, and Mr. Dooley has given his services as organizer and instructor. New courses were established to meet the needs of operatives, and the mill men gave freely of machinery and material.

Mr. Dooley points out that no city in the state of Massachusetts needs industrial education more than Lawrence, where more children leave the grammar school before graduation than in any other city. It appears that the average length of a boy's school life in the textile centers, up to a few years ago, was about four years. As a consequence, the boys who are now the textile workers received little, if any, more schooling than was represented by the four years, and regardless of physical equipment they are greatly handicapped in advancing industrially. Lawrence, according to the census of 1905, is the ranking city in the United States in the production of worsted goods which is more cleanly and remunerative work than the other textile industries. Consequently it requires a higher grade of labor. The great need of industrial education in this trade is witnessed by the extraordinary success of the correspondence school in Lawrence, in which over 2,000 students have enrolled. That the greater number of them were obliged to drop out early in the course for lack of educational training, is a pitiful comment on the shortness of their previous school life.

The school opened this winter as an evening school for those already engaged in the trades with a registration of nearly 700. It was in charge of Principal

William H. Dooley. It is the desire of the local commission to establish at an early date a day industrial (textile) school for boys between fourteen and eighteen.

ORGANIZATION AT OSHKOSH

The constitution of the newly organized Associated Charities of Oshkosh, Wis., furnishes another illustration of the happy capacity of Americans to adapt the institution to the locality, while holding firmly to underlying principles. The federation plan which comes so naturally to the workers of any city wishing to organize was made use of here, but instead of having the new office do the investigating, as is frequently done, the volunteer workers in the various charities associated, investigate. Before giving material relief or taking any important action, they confer with the registrar in the central office, where all the records are kept. In this way, co-operation, such a necessary element in constructive charity work, is established.

In Oshkosh, as in many other places, women had been doing most of the benevolent work. The men, thinking this was scarcely fair, called several informal conferences of business and professional men, and at a meeting early in December, a committee was appointed to take steps looking to an organization. A constitution was presented by this committee to a later meeting and adopted. The articles of incorporation were filed December 16 and on January 9 the first regular meeting of the society was held.

During the progress of the work of organizing, the co-operation of the Chamber of Commerce was sought. This proved to have been a very wise move, as the chamber not only endorsed the work, but an arrangement was effected whereby the office of the Chamber of Commerce became also the office of the Associated Charities, and the secretary of the commercial body was appointed also registrar of the new charitable association. This plan of placing the charitable and business organizations so closely together is a more natural arrangement than is sometimes supposed.

There is little doubt but its extension would work to the advantage of both.

Beside providing for its administrative expenses, the society will undertake to raise most of the money needed for relief work of different kinds in the city, distributing it among the various co-operating agencies.

The Chelsea Fire

Joseph Lee

The fire began Sunday, April 12, at 11 A. M., at the north end of the town, spread out like a fan until it struck the railroad on one side and the Boston fire department on the other, and then slowly contracted till it reached Chelsea Creek, about a mile from the starting point. The wind was blowing about fifty miles an hour; and the fire would have taken in East Boston for dessert if the shingles of that suburb had not been wet down by the engines. As it was, it crossed the creek in one place, on oil, in a column three stories high, but it was surrounded and choked.

The fire burned about 360 acres, and rendered homeless 15,000 people, mostly poor or in moderate circumstances. About 5,000 were Jews, and the feast of the Passover somewhat complicated the question of supplying food.

Relief measures began Sunday afternoon, while the fire was at its height, both in Chelsea and elsewhere, under local people and on the initiative of the mayor of Boston and the governor of the state.

The most striking phenomenon of the first night was the absorption of the homeless. A few hundred were fed in Chelsea square and a few hundred more were lodged and fed in churches and school buildings in surrounding towns, but the great mass of them simply disappeared.

That night a committee in the mayor's office in Boston got hot coffee and other supplies—all they could use—from bakers and grocers and restaurants. It was all carted out to Chelsea and given to everyone who asked for it and everyone was fed. The call in behalf of refugees in town was trifling.

Between that first night and the present one, eight days later, a good many things have happened. There have been many separate headquarters, each giving out many different kinds of things on many and varied principles. There has been an unprecedented scarcity of benchholders on Boston Common, and I presume some of them have found that business was better in Chelsea than they have often seen it.

But very soon indeed order was beginning to emerge; and by describing that as it grew I shall give the only clear and statable idea of what has been done around the widening clearing. The reader will imagine a more or less chaotic expenditure of supplies, good feeling, and energy.

Sunday night, during the fire, Seymore H. Stone, general secretary of the Children's Friend Society, started a bureau of information through which families became reunited and which after five days of orderly, effective work, occupying a force of sixteen clerks, was absorbed into the general organization I am about to describe. It reunited about 300 families.

Monday morning, Miss Higgins, who had been out here most of the night, started a "special needs committee," with the aid of Jeffrey R. Brackett and Miss Frances R. Morse, and the cordial assistance of Alderman Henry and Mr. Otis Merriam of the Chelsea Overseers of the Poor.

This was a genuine rehabilitation committee—a court of *oyer* and *terminer*—and has been so ever since. It will be hereinafter described as Miss Higgins's committee.

Monday morning an organization of Chelsea citizens was formed, with Mr. McClintock, chairman of the Massachusetts Highway Commission, at the head of it—a man of tact and character, held in high regard by his fellow citizens.

With this committee, Mr. J. F. Moors, who was sent out here Sunday afternoon during the fire by both the mayor of Boston and the governor, soon established co-operative and friendly relations; and these, with Miss Higgins and Mr. Carstens have been working together

ever since, and out of this group a general organization has emerged, which has accomplished the following things:

First, the eight independent relief stations have been given each a definite territory.

Second, the giving out of food is done by these stations, the food being sent them only from headquarters (in the high school building where Miss Higgins's committee is) on requisitions signed by their heads. Since Saturday the food has been in the charge of Major A. P. Chase of the militia.

Third, clothes and bedding are given out only from two centers and only on requisition of a special committee working in close co-operation with Miss Higgins's committee.

Since Friday morning the clothes (often unsorted and in a frightful mess when they arrive) have been in charge of Lieutenant Belcher of the signal corps. The central depot of clothing is in Boston, in charge of the Red Cross.

Fourth, and now, gradually, the separate relief stations are being amalgamated, or superseded by the central committees—and the work is steadily getting down to deliberate, individual, case work.

The money for all this is being subscribed by the citizens of Massachusetts and is controlled by a committee appointed by the governor, with J. J. Storow at its head. The committee recognizes, for the work within Chelsea that I have been describing, only the signature of Mr. McClintock, so that he, and the Chelsea citizens and charity workers who are co-operating with him, control the situation. In this action and in most other things the committee has wisely followed the advice of Mr. Moors, who has done more than anyone to bring about the order and co-operation that have so swiftly appeared.

But the work is not all to be done in Chelsea. There are refugees in all the surrounding towns, including Boston. A committee, appointed by the general committee that holds the funds, has charge of all this work. Russell Fessenden is chairman, and other members are: Messrs. Ratchetsky and David F. Tilley, and Miss Frances G. Curtis of the State Board of Charity, Mr. Pear, head of the Provident Association, and Mr. Pickert, president of the Federation of Jewish Charities.

This committee has selected in each of the towns near Chelsea and in each dis-

trict in Boston an organization to which all cases in its particular territory are to be referred. In Boston these local organizations include the district conferences of the Associated Charities; and among the others are the Associated Charities of Malden, Cambridge and Lynn.

The case of every person, living outside Chelsea, and asking for fire relief, is referred directly to the Boston Committee, the person himself being sent back to where he lives. The Boston Committee refers the case immediately to the appropriate local committee, which looks up the person and forms a plan for his relief, if needed. These plans, and money paid out for them, are passed upon by the Boston committee.

There is also a sanitary committee. The first night there was a death from diphtheria, other cases of that disease, and several cases of measles among the 200 refugees in the town hall at Revere. The thirty school nurses of Boston have furnished relays for the work. The militia were prompt and kept order the night of the fire and since.

In general, the trained charity worker has shown himself prompt, capable, and devoted. They are rather a gaunt looking set out here this afternoon; but they have delivered the goods.

The Jewish Charities have taken all Jewish cases—at least in Chelsea and anywhere near Central Boston. I should think Max Mitchell, Meyer Bloomfield and the rest would be dead. But they are not, and others are alive in consequence.

Secondly, business people have been heroes of devotion and, of course, of efficiency. I talked with John Moors over the telephone at eleven p. m. the night of the fire—I in Boston and he in Chelsea square. I have been told (and it is a significant myth if not a literal fact) that the electric road had a mile of new track laid and running over night. One company I know started manufacturing again on the Thursday after the fire. A number of firms are caring for their own people, sending their names to the committee. The insurance people have given the relief committee their list.

Business people with charity training

like Russell Fessenden, the head of the Boston committee, have been extremely effective. One thing Mr. Fessenden has done has been putting in trained clerks from business houses to do catalog and account-keeping work, saving wear and tear on charity workers and producing a clock-work regularity of output that makes it almost a pleasure to see the wheels go round—only you can't because Miss Mary Dewson is in charge of the central catalog and no loafers are allowed in. Business men without charity training are not in all cases expediting the work. It is not always easy to find jobs for them and a jollier or two has to be detailed to put out back fires they set when they find jobs for themselves. There are cases—but I remember a diplomatic friend in China who wrote "I can't tell you any truth—the rest you can find out from the newspapers." Fortunately J. J. Storrow, chairman of the relief committee (the final authority) understands the charity workers and backs them up.

By the introduction of trained clerks, by a considerable return toward rational hours, by closing down altogether to-day (Sunday), and above all by the smoother running of the organization, the lives of the charity professionals—paid and unpaid—will, I think, be saved. One or two have been laid off. Conflagrations are so much a routine part of American life that we can't afford to kill off all our best workers whenever they occur.

Of course the system is far from perfect. Hideous mistakes, infinite delays, must and do occur. As the lady who rules over my household is now in charge of a sort of kickers' hall at Boston headquarters, where the second crop is beginning to come in—those who have been dealt with once without success—I am fully conscious of this fact.

The total subscription so far is \$288,000. To-day an appeal will be made in the churches and though many have already subscribed I think about \$25,000 will result. The central committee limits the money help (*i. e.*, exclusive of clothes) to \$50 a family. The limit is, theoretically, irrational and absurd; but it is probably on the whole a good thing. It has not operated in a tendency to level

up to \$50. Perhaps some unadvertised method of dealing with special cases above that limit will be introduced.

Cure is in re-employment, and that waits on rebuilding, and that in turn is held up by lack of decision as to new building laws and regulations, and these must wait till the tribunal for deciding on them is created. So that the whole matter of getting going again depends on the action of the state legislature as to a form of local government to meet the emergency. It is significant of how far our cities have become European rather than American that nobody suggests that Chelsea can elect her own rulers. All desire a commission appointed by the governor of the state.

"By Reason of Strength"

Alexander Johnson

The first effect of hearing that Timothy Nicholson has retired, at the ripe age of eighty years, from active work in Indiana, is almost that of consternation. His work has been so large and so successful, he has labored in so many fields, in every one of which he has been a leader and an inspirer, that the people



TIMOTHY NICHOLSON

in the state who want to see things done rightly, have acquired the habit of depending upon him more than upon any other man or dozen men.

A few days ago the citizens of Richmond, his home city for forty-seven years, honored themselves by gathering together to honor Mr. Nicholson. At the banquet which they enjoyed the chairman introduced him in the following words:

It now becomes my pleasure to introduce our beloved guest of honor. Shakespeare knew him and put words that are worth while into his mouth for this evening: "Though I am old, yet am I strong and lusty.

For in my youth I never did apply
Hot and rebellious liquor in my blood,
Nor did not with unbashful forehead woo
The means of weakness and debility;
Therefore my age is as a lusty winter
Frosted, but kindly."

Mr. Nicholson has certainly earned a right to retire for few men have crowded so many public activities into fifty years, as he has since he began to be a leader in Indiana. He was born of Quaker stock, in North Carolina, in the year 1828. His parents were among the Friends who joined the anti-slavery cause, and the cause of the oppressed, the ignorant and the unfortunate has always been his. He began active life as an educator, and held responsible positions in eastern schools and colleges until he came to Indiana and engaged in the book and stationery business with his brother. By that business he has made his living to the present day. He has held more offices of trust and honor in the state than perhaps any other man, but has never held an office of profit. He helped to organize the State Normal School and was one of its trustees. He has been a trustee of Earlham College for forty-three years, for many years he was a member of the Richmond School Board and for twenty-three years he was a trustee of the Morrison Library. For forty years he has been a leader in the Friends Church, an elder thirty-six years, for twenty-two years clerk of the yearly meeting of elders and clerks, and he is now clerk of the Indiana yearly meeting. He was the originator of the

first world-wide meeting of Friends. Five great quinquennial meetings have been held, and Timothy Nicholson has been chairman of the committee on arrangements for every one. He has been for many years a Sunday-school teacher, and he was superintendent for twenty years. He was president of the Indiana Sunday School Union, and for three years a member of the executive committee of the International Sunday School Association. This is but a partial list of his many public services. In every position that he has held, he has taken a full share of duty. He has never condescended to be a figurehead. For Timothy Nicholson to be on a committee means that he knows and takes part in everything the committee does.

Mr. Nicholson's idea of a citizen's duty, is that he is responsible for the government of the city, state and nation in which he has a vote. He has always been an indefatigable worker in politics, not merely on election day but at the primaries and before them. He has never held an elective public office, but he has done more to promote good government than most men dream of being able to accomplish. It goes without saying that he is an active prohibitionist, although he never joined the prohibition party. His theory of reform is to reform his own party, and he usually votes a straight ticket, which he has helped to make straight by seeing that only straight men were put on it, but when unworthy or inefficient men are nominated by his party, he works as hard against them as though they were of the opposition. His theory of responsibility, however, is not confined to making laws. He believes he is responsible for their enforcement, and he has been a terror to evil-doers and violators of the law in high and low places.

One of his notable characteristics is his frank way of telling you precisely what he thinks about you, whether you have done ill or well. He uses the Quaker plainness of speech, but with such kindness that it has been said that it is more agreeable to be reproved by Timothy Nicholson than to be praised by some men.

While his work in the Friends Church, in the cause of higher education and as a reformer of party politics, has been noteworthy, possibly his greatest usefulness to the state of Indiana for the last thirty years or more, has been in charitable and penal affairs. For a number of years before the Board of State Charities was organized, the Friends meetings, in the different cities, had been in the habit of appointing committees of three or four "discreet Friends," to visit and look into the affairs of the poor-house, the jail and orphans' home, and report to the meeting. The fact that people of character and reputation visited and inspected the institutions was a great benefit to the community. One result of these committees was to help create a public sentiment, not only in their own community, but among the people at large. It is the strong public sentiment which had been created in this and other ways, throughout the state, that has been a chief source of the success of the State Board of Charities in Indiana. Mr. Nicholson was a leader in this work of the Friends, and several notable reforms had been achieved before the Board of State Charities was created. Perhaps the most notable was the establishment of the Woman's Prison and Reformatory, administered and officered entirely by women, which was at the time unique and which is still almost alone of its kind.

When any one of the last nine or ten governors of Indiana has wanted a man for an unsalaried position of special trust and responsibility, the first to be thought of was Timothy Nicholson, and so it was natural that when the Board of Charities was organized in March, 1889, he was appointed to it by Governor Hovey. Being what he is, it was natural that every subsequent governor should re-appoint him, regardless of politics. When the board began work Mr. Nicholson's experience was of immense value. The board was a new experiment for Indiana. Public sentiment, on the whole, was favorable, but the public mind was in a questioning attitude. People said the board had no power; that no matter how bad it found things, it could not remedy them. The best

people in the management of the institutions were dubious. The possibility of mischief, through meddling interference, was plain. The probability of much benefit seemed doubtful. Success depended mainly on the wisdom and discretion of the board and its secretary. Never was there a better opportunity to exercise good judgment, common sense and tact. Never was it more necessary to recognize and commend all good work that was being done, at the same time that errors of administration and law were made known.

A Board of State Charities must approve the good and reprehend the bad. Its position in the mind of the people generally, will vary as it lays its emphasis on the one or the other. If its work be chiefly negative, the discovering and pointing out of errors and imperfections, it may be feared, and perhaps respected, but it will be cordially hated. If it takes the positive side and makes things better by encouraging all that is good, it will be respected and loved by all but the worst element. From the beginning the course of the Indiana board has been an uninterrupted series of successful efforts. One by one its doubters and critics have become friends. It has gained the confidence of the state, and the state's faithful servants have found it their wisest counsellor for improved administration, and their best friend and most efficient defender against unjust aspersion. The progress that the state has made during the past nineteen years, probably has been unexampled in the history of the commonwealths of the nation. Much of this progress has been due to the influence of the Board of State Charities, which in turn has owed more to the character of Timothy Nicholson, who has always stood "four square to every wind that blows," than to that of any other man.

Since 1889 Mr. Nicholson has been a regular attendant at the National Conference of Charities and Correction of which he was president in 1902. His voice has rarely been heard in the discussions. For a man so much in the public eye, he is one of the most modest that ever breathed. In the debates his practice is not to speak unless no one

seems about to say the thing which he thinks ought to be said. Occasionally this has led to the close of a discussion without the audience hearing what should have been said, but in his opinion there will always be time, sooner or later, for the truth to be heard.

To the three successive secretaries of the Board of State Charities, Mr. Nicholson's membership has been a benefaction which it is hard to find words to express. He has been their guide, philosopher and friend. In moments of trial and discouragement, he has never failed to speak the right word of wise counsel. He has praised their faithfulness, minimized their shortcomings, helped and advised their work. With wisdom, tact and rare moderation, he has always stood for counsels of courage, and ever depreciated the least approach to timidity or time serving. He has taken on his own shoulders a full share of work, and has never shirked a responsibility. He well deserves the title that has been accorded him, of the "state's most useful citizen." May he long live to enjoy, in rest and retirement, that peace which has always been his, through trial and temptation and the most strenuous days of struggle, "the peace which passeth understanding."

Prohibition and Southern Local Problems

Francis H. McLean
Field Secretary Charities and The Commons

Filled with the ordinary and traditional theories regarding prohibition and its effects I recently had occasion to observe the trend of things in a southern city.

The city is Knoxville, Tennessee, having a population of between 60,000 and 80,000. It has been under a prohibition law for three months. This was accomplished by a referendum vote which in substance abolished the old charter, and provided for the re-incorporation of the city under uniform state statute provisions, requiring prohibition in all cities so organized. Previous to the beginning of the new regime both wholesale and retail dealers, in most cases, practically sold out all their stock on

hand. So there was plenty of liquor in private hands, most of it, however, being intended for purely private use. Liquor is of course shipped in from neighboring Kentucky cities which are wet. That this is profitable is indicated by the advertisements of dealers in Middlesboro and other places appearing in some of the Knoxville papers. Pretty fair sized advertisements, too. There has grown up the exceedingly hazardous occupation of the "boot-legger," the itinerant seller, but it should be said that arrests are frequent. Some saloons turned into innocent "soft" resorts are suspected of concocting mysterious drinks.

But after all this is conceded, there still remains the fact, to which those who have been the most intelligent social workers in Knoxville will testify, that the absence of the downright saloon has meant that many men, who previously succumbed to temptation when the saloon was present, are not among those who buy from abroad. The real inebriate, the really physically diseased, will doubtless somehow get his "wet," but after all that is not a large class. There are certain localities, once dangerous at night, which can now be ventured into with almost perfect safety. Knoxville for some time had a reputation as a city of murders. That is apparently a thing of the past. The red light district is waning. There are of course readily obtainable statistics but they would be misleading at this juncture. Not less than a year's trial will give a sufficient measure. So far, however, with a heavy public sentiment behind and an efficient police administration, the results have been extremely significant and important from the point of view of the social worker.

To some of the social workers in Knoxville the opportunity appears to be a unique one, not only for attacking other environmental evils, but for experimenting with social substitutes for the saloon. Where are the laboring men's clubs in Knoxville? That is where the traditional theories regarding the results of prohibition, as the writer indicated in the opening paragraph, are of especial value. The saloon had its club features. Is not substitution the line of advance now, with a comparatively clear field?

The Chicago Settlements and Social Unrest

Jane Addams

Whatever other services the settlement may have endeavored to perform for its community, there is no doubt that it has come to regard that of interpreting foreign colonies to the rest of the city in the light of a professional obligation. This settlement interpretation may be right or wrong, but it is at least based upon years of first hand information and upon an opportunity for free intercourse with the foreign people themselves.

The city as a whole is ready to listen to this interpretation in times of peace, but when an event implying "anarchy" occurs such as the Averbuch incident in Chicago or the Silverstein bomb throwing in New York, it is apparently impossible for the over-wrought community to distinguish between the excitement the settlements are endeavoring to understand and to allay and the attitude of the settlement itself. At such times fervid denunciation is held to be the duty of every good citizen, and if the settlement chooses to use its efforts to interpret rather than denounce the sentiments of the foreign colony, its attitude is at once taken to imply a championship of anarchy itself.

The public mind at such a moment falls into the old mediaeval confusion—he who feeds or shelters a heretic is upon *prima facie* evidence a heretic himself—he who knows intimately people among whom anarchists arise is therefore an anarchist.

Certainly the settlements do not wish to pose as martyrs because of these inevitable misunderstandings, but we may perhaps be permitted to utilize the occasion to explain the settlement position, and to assert that it is difficult to ascribe any real

social value to settlements at all, if they are not ready in times of public panic to stake the sober results of their experience and their mature convictions against the hasty public opinion of the moment, and to do this irrespective of the result upon themselves.

In fact the more excited and irrational public opinion is, the more recklessly newspapers state mere surmises as facts and upon these surmises arouse unsubstantiated prejudices against certain immigrants, the more necessary it is that some body of people should be ready to

put forward the spiritual and intellectual conditions of the foreign colony which is thus being made the subject of inaccurate surmises and unjust suspicion.

We might possibly be permitted to go a step further and to assert that quite as settlements have a unique opportunity for seeing and understanding the state of mind into which a foreign colony is thrown by such an untoward event, so it might be assumed that settlements have exceptional opportunities

for suggesting the best method for meeting the situation, or at least for treating it in a way which will not destroy confidence in the American institutions which are so adored by the refugees from foreign governmental oppression.

Every settlement has classes in citizenship in which the principles of American institutions are expounded and of these the community as a whole, approves. But the settlements know better than anyone else that while these classes and lectures are useful, nothing can possibly give lessons in citizenship so effectively and make so clear the constitutional basis



of a self-governing community as the current event itself. The treatment at a given moment of that foreign colony which feels itself outraged and misunderstood, either makes its constitutional rights clear to it, or forever confuses it, on the subject.

Because my first American ancestor bought his land of William Penn in 1684, and because Olga Averbuch has been in America for two years, does not make the least difference in our constitutional rights. It does, however, put me under an obligation to interpret to her and her kindred, the spirit and intent of American institutions as they are understood by those who have inherited them, so to speak; it may cause me to reflect that unless their protection shall be extended equally to all, they are slipping from our grasp.

It sometimes seems that each set of immigrants goes through much the same political development, and that the present arrivals, quite as our own ancestors did, care most passionately of all for "freedom." The phrases one hears most often among the Russian Jewish immigrants are "free speech," "freedom of assemblage" and a "free press," doubtless the same words which were most often repeated in broad Oxfordshire dialect by those early founders of the Pennsylvania colony.

This paper is an attempt to state some of the reactions of the Averbuch affair upon the Russian Jewish colony of which the young man was a newly arrived member, and to put down some of the reflections to which these reactions have given rise. It makes not the slightest effort to go into the facts of the case, nor to give judgment upon the guilt or innocence of Averbuch, but to state a position which seems to us a just one, whether or not the police theory should be substantiated.

One realizes of course the inevitable sense of horror with which the community regards an attack upon an official as such. It adds the horror of anarchy to assassination and is the essence of that which distinguishes anarchy from assassination. The crime against government

itself compels an instinctive recoil from all law-abiding citizens and both the horror and recoil have their roots deep down in human experience. The earliest forms of government implied a group which offered competent resistance to invasion or attack from outsiders, but assumed that no protection was necessary between any two of its own members. When, therefore, one member, who in all good faith had been taken into the privileges of the group, turned against another member, the offence was regarded as one of unpardonable treason promptly punishable with death. This prompt dealing with the traitor still continues in military organizations, where treason is so fraught with immediate danger that even insolence to a superior officer, which may be the first symptom of insubordination, is not tolerated for an instant. The anarchist corresponds in civil society to the traitor in military circles, and is the modern representative of the long line of creatures, despised always, reaching back to the tribe itself. When an anarchistic attack is made against an official representative of law and order we have the baldest possible situation and an accredited basis, as it were, for unreasoning hatred and for prompt punishment. There is, too, no doubt that in the present instance there is added to this old horror the sense of being betrayed by a newcomer, by one who has been kindly received and who is undermining the government which others have painstakingly built up. It becomes almost a mark of patriotism in the first excitement to fulminate against the "foreign anarchist."

But because such a deed is colossal in its reaction upon a law-abiding community, it is well to remember that the very horror and dread which it produces naturally extends to the entire colony of newly immigrated foreigners with whom the idea of anarchy thus becomes associated. Because of the consciousness of this, the Russian Jewish colony on the west side of Chicago was thrown into a state of intense excitement as soon as the nationality of the young man who went to the house of the chief of police became known.

During the hours of uncertainty as to

the young man's identity, the time between the first and last editions of the evening papers, the members of both the Italian and Russian colony were filled with dark forebodings, with a swift prescience of what it would mean to either of them were the odium of anarchy rightly or wrongly attached to one of their members.

An Italian in my hearing cried out,

We have just had Alia in Denver. We can endure no more. We have an uphill fight as it is with the American prejudice against 'dagoes' and the Paterson group constantly appearing in the newspapers.

An ambitious Russian Jew who thought himself quite free from the faith of his orthodox fathers, the same afternoon said, with white lips:

That picture in the *News* looks like a Russian Jew; we can't have it so. All our radicals are socialists, not anarchists. We are not such fools as to pursue the method of terrorism in a country where there is free speech and an opportunity for agitation. We fill up the night schools, we learn English faster than anyone else; no one tries so hard as we do, to be Americans. To attach anarchy to us means persecution, plain Jew-baiting and nothing else.

For the next few weeks at least his worst fears in this direction were realized. Every member in the colony in varying degrees immediately felt the result of the public panic. A large tract of land near Paris, Ill., which had been negotiated for that an agricultural colony of Russian Jews might be established, was withdrawn by the seller on the ground that the people of the vicinity were not willing to have anarchists settle there, although the land was practically sold and only the final arrangements remained to be completed. The society having the matter in charge was forced to give up the entire affair. School children were hooted and stoned upon the streets. Inoffensive young people returning from their work upon the street cars were treated with the utmost contempt. One young man was obliged to leave a dental college because of the persecution of his fellow students, and similar instances might be cited by the hundred. The old anti-Semitic feeling held sway, encouraged and sustained by the

sense that to indulge it was "to put down anarchy."

The inevitable resentment engendered by this treatment first expressed itself against the "Americans" that they so readily took the hasty newspaper conclusions that the man was an anarchist. The Russians themselves give this version of the incident, which I may be permitted to repeat as from them: that the chief of police saw a young man with an envelope in his hand enter his door; that according to the chief's own statement he was at once convinced that the man was an Italian anarchist sent to assassinate him in the furtherance of an anarchistic plot, of which he had been warned. The Russian colony says that it has been clearly ascertained since, that the chief was mistaken as to the man's nationality; a searching inquiry failed to establish the fact that the man was an anarchist, and it is certainly within the range of human possibilities that the man's intent was also misinterpreted. Nothing could have been further apart than this certainly possible version and the one spread over the front pages of the leading Chicago dailies. A sense of injustice, of a lack of fair play, rankled through all those first experiences of persecution.

It seemed to the Russian colony that none of the Americans took the position that because a man has been attacked in his official capacity, an obligation is implied to go into the matter with that decorum and gravity which is inevitably attached to governmental affairs. It is certainly true that just because anarchy is so hideous an affront upon society, upon the most precious of its inherited institutions, the most elemental sense of justice demands that before its stigma is attached to an entire colony of immigrants, not only the facts themselves should be carefully ascertained, but the method of dealing with such a situation should be soberly considered. It may also be maintained that the pursuance of an unintelligent policy may easily result in increasing the very tendencies which it is desired to suppress.

A most superficial analysis shows the advocates of the violent overthrow of government, whether or not they justify

their action by anarchistic doctrines, are inevitably produced in countries such as Russia, where the government is interpreted to them by a series of unjust and repressive measures. In these countries the officials are concerned only to assert their paramount authority, no constitutional rights are guaranteed, and such untoward events as the massacre at Kishinev are readily suspected of sinister direction by the government itself. The only sane, the only possible cure for such a state of mind, the only method by which a reasonable and loyal conception of government may be substituted for the one formed upon such an experience, is that the actual experience of the refugees with government in America shall gradually demonstrate what a very different thing government means here. Such an event as the Averbuch affair affords an unprecedented opportunity to make clear this difference and to demonstrate beyond the possibility of misunderstanding that the guarantee of constitutional rights implies that officialism shall be restrained and guarded at every point, that the official represents not the will of a small administrative body but the will of the entire people, and that methods therefore have been constituted by which official aggression may be restrained. The opportunity comes to demonstrate this to that very body of people who need it most; to those who have had experience in Russia where autocratic officers represent autocratic power and where government is officialism.

It is deeply to be regretted that instead of using this opportunity to present to the Russian Jewish colony the sharp contrast between the two forms of government, the republican government right on its own ground and in the hands of its friends should have fallen into the Russian method of dealing with a similar incident, and that because the community was in a state of panic it should have connived at and apparently approved of these very drastic methods on the part of the police.

It is a common saying among Russians of all classes that the real ruler of a Russian city is the chief of police, doubtless because the police, backed many times by

the Cossack soldiery, are the final executors and interpreters of autocracy. The fact, therefore, that it was the Russian colony to which the Chicago police repaired immediately after Averbuch had been identified made the action of the police all the more deplorable and caused feeling to run very high. The Averbuch family was not the only one which had been subjected to persecution and threatened with massacre in "the old country." The Russian Jewish colony was largely made up of such families, only too familiar with the methods of the Russian police. Therefore, when the Chicago police ransacked all the printing offices they could locate in the colony, when they raided a restaurant which they regarded as suspicious because it had been supplying food at cost to the unemployed, when they searched through private houses for papers and photographs of revolutionaries, when they seized the library of the Edelstadt group and carried the books away to the city hall, when they arrested two friends of young Averbuch and kept them in the police station forty-eight hours after the police themselves acknowledged their acquaintance with the young man had been most casual; when they mercilessly "sweated" the sister, Olga, and led her up between two officers to the half naked body of her brother, that she might be startled into a confession; when they so persistently told her that her brother had killed three men, so that she could scarcely be made to believe that this was a mistake when she was released on the fourth day and returned to her friends;—all these things so poignantly reminded them of Russian methods that indignation, fed both by old memory and bitter disappointment in America, swept over the entire colony. The older men asked whether constitutional rights gave no guarantee against such violent aggression of police power, and the hot-headed ones cried out at once that the only way to deal with the police was to defy them; that that was true of the police the world over.

The younger and more radical members of the Russian Jewish colony were determined to protest against the action of the police, which they considered

brutal, by the only method possible in Russia, that of a procession and public demonstration so large that the police should not suppress it. It was planned to make this demonstration at the reburial of the body of Averbuch. This time was selected partly because it was a dramatic moment and partly because great resentment had been aroused in the Jewish colony by the needless indignity heaped upon the body, Jewish sentiment being most sensitive upon such a matter. They did not so much resent the fact that the body was placed in the potter's field as they resented all the needless suffering of the sister, Olga, that she had been brutally told that no Jewish cemetery would receive the body of an anarchist and that, of course, no Christian cemetery would, "that traces of anarchy had been found in the brain," as if the words were written across the front lobes. It seemed to the older and more conservative members of the Russian Jewish colony, as it did indeed to the residents of the two settlements with whom they were in constant communication, that such a demonstration was most unwise, and should be prevented if possible. A procession at such a time, a possible collision with the police, might result disastrously.

The only method of accomplishing this was to keep the time of the reburial a secret. This was most difficult because in order to remove the body legally it was necessary to obtain permits not only from the burial division of the city Health Department but from the coroner who held jurisdiction over the body until a report of the inquest should have been made, and from the president of the County Board of Commissioners, because the potter's field in which the body had temporarily been buried, belonged to the county. If the reburial was to be carried through without a demonstration, it was necessary to procure these three permissions simultaneously upon the opening of the offices in the morning and to proceed at once before the noon edition of the newspapers informed the public that the permits had been issued. The young radicals had stationed two men in the corridor of the burial department of the

Board of Health that they might notify their comrades whenever a burial permit should be granted, which they anticipated would be given to a Hebrew burial society. Everything was arranged to give the signal quickly to those young comrades throughout the colony, who were only too eager to march and to show their contempt for the police. Through the friendly co-operation of the physician in charge of this department the permits were given without their knowledge. As these various permits were obtained from city and county—and the one from the coroner's office was not obtained without almost insuperable difficulties—they were assembled at the down town office of an attorney who was interested in the affair on the same basis as many of us were.

Armed with all this red tape, the body was disinterred, a second autopsy was held by a distinguished pathologist who fortunately cared for fair play as much as he did for medical etiquette, the reburial took place with appropriate Jewish rites, and a hostile demonstration was avoided.

The settlement people were able to carry through this delicate and extremely difficult affair more easily perhaps than the members of the Russian Jewish colony could have done; at least the latter themselves eagerly insisted upon this settlement help, and came to the house in the moment of their perplexity and distress with no notion that help and counsel would be denied them. They—the settlement people—did not, however, by this win encomiums from the radical portion of the colony, who felt that their demonstration had been unwarrantably interfered with and that an excellent opportunity for propaganda had been lost. It was indeed a somewhat ironic situation, a leading newspaper calling the settlement people "socialists" and "disturbers of the peace" at the very moment when they were being denounced by the socialists themselves as "cowards" and "bourgeoisie."

This attitude toward the police on the part of the young Russian revolutionaries is in itself a new development. Their normal attitude has been that in

America the policeman is pursuing his natural function of preserving peace and has not been turned into the spy of a suspicious government or the executive officer of "a pogrom." But the Russian colony now says that if the police are to use these drastic measures, the Russian method is preferable to the American one, for in Russia it has been carefully worked out and is at least guarded at certain points; that the Russian police have a list of books marked illegal, but that the excited men acting for the Chicago police department carried away all of the books belonging to the Edelstadt group including a full set of Shakespeare and a full set of Spencer. The Russian colony also insists that the Russian government has many agents in this country whose business it is to do everything possible to stop the flow of money sent from America to support the Russian revolutionists; that such agents are always trying to break up meetings held by Russian Jews in which they discuss the Russian revolutionary movement, and that if the American police can be persuaded that all such meetings are dangerous and anarchistic, if they can receive orders to break them up on sight wherever found, it will do more than any other one thing to prevent the collection of funds for the Russian revolution. The Russian colony believes that these agents of the Russian government are constantly seeking to influence public opinion. If Americans say that the police will have to be stringent with these anarchists who threaten officials and throw bombs, and that it is easy to understand how the Russian government has been driven into restrictive and strong-handed measures, a great point will have been made. They cite the fact that while an extradition treaty was consummated between America and Russia during the last years of President Cleveland's administration, the Russian government has seldom if ever, availed itself of it until after the Shippey event, since when a number of applications have been made for extradition; at least two to Chicago and four to New York. They insist that this is but the beginning of its fre-

quent use, at least so long as its use will be sustained by public opinion, and that the Russian government utilized the first wave of feeling against Russian anarchists to establish a much desired precedent. It is quite possible that the young Russians are most unjustly suspicious in this regard, but certain it is that so soon as the matter is discussed by one of them dark hints are thrown out concerning governmental agents who may have induced a young man of eighteen, fumbling in the midst of bewildering hopes and reactions, to go to the chief of police at the moment when public panic and excitement on the subject of anarchy was at its height, because of the Denver affair. Such a boy would inevitably expose himself to a suspicion of evil intent, and it is of course further intimated that these same agents may have prepared the mind of the chief by tales of anarchistic plots and upset his nerves by mysterious messages.

There are many hundreds of adherents in the colony to the theory that the boy was obscurely induced to go to the chief's house by a man in the employ of the Russian government. Certainly nothing could happen which would so well serve the purpose of the Russian government and the American public is taking it in exactly the way which makes it most valuable to the Russians.

Would it not provoke to ironic laughter that very Nemesis which presides over the destinies of nations, if the most autocratic government yet remaining in civilization should succeed in pulling back into its own autocratic methods the youngest and most daring experiment in democratic government which the world has ever seen? Stranger results have followed a course of stupidity and injustice resulting from blindness and panic! The only way to meet such a suspicion is of course by perfect frankness and by inviting a full and searching inquiry into the entire situation.

To the reply that the coroner's inquest invited such a searching examination they make rejoinder that the

attorney who appeared there on behalf of the sister, Olga, did so at the cost of public opprobrium, that an attempt made to testify as to the good character of Averbuch was put down in the most high-handed fashion. The following instance is indeed well authenticated: A young man, a friend of Averbuch, who had earlier figured in the newspapers as a mysterious "curly headed" person, went to Captain O'Brien's office at nine o'clock on the morning of the inquest offering to appear as a witness as to the good character of Averbuch. He was promptly arrested and detained until four o'clock the same afternoon and so was prevented from giving favorable testimony.

They maintain that not a scintilla of evidence was produced at the inquest to prove the charge of anarchy, and yet that the same newspapers which had so assiduously spread the police charge of anarchy did nothing whatever to rectify the mistake when the coroner's inquest not only failed to establish such a charge, but when their silence confirmed a lack of material upon which they were willing to make such a charge. They, the Russian Jewish colony, further assert that the Americans throughout the community were brutally indifferent to the fact that the odium of this unsubstantiated charge should remain upon thousands of their fellow citizens of Russian Jewish birth.

I could quote a much longer indictment which is made against the coroner's inquest by the colony, but perhaps the spirit can be best illustrated by the events in New York. The Russian Jewish colony there are also convinced, quite erroneously possibly, but still convinced by the hundreds, that Silverstein was also cleverly influenced by Russian agents to prepare his bomb. They insist that the man's life was meager and dull; that he had absolutely no connection save with the Socialist Party, who would have been the last to propose such a measure, and that it is but reasonable to believe that such a suggestion came from an outside source. If governments and governmental agents suggest such machinations to thousands of our fellow citi-

zens, the method of procedure in order to disillusion them would seem clear.

It is quite possible that this interpretation is scattered broadcast by the Russian revolutionary party as propaganda against the Czar's government. Far be it from me to decide. At the present moment all parties (with the notable exception of the advocates of American law and constitutional rights) are using the event as the basis for their propaganda.

The socialists pointed out the very morning after the occurrence that their great contention was here illustrated; that like economic conditions produce like results the world over; that when American capitalists are frightened as to the safety of their property or power, they behave exactly as the Russians do when they are similarly frightened.

Since the event the membership in all the radical societies in the Russian Jewish colony, irrespective of names and creeds, has increased with incredible rapidity. During the first few days applications were received faster than they could be taken care of. It registered a conviction that in a moment of panic a republican government cared no more for justice and fair play than an autocratic government did; that in America as in Russia the statement of an official was without question taken as over against the statements of the obscure members of the community. It was said many times that those who are without influence and protection in a strange country fare exactly as hard as do the poor in Europe; that all the talk of guaranteed protection through political institutions is nonsense.

It seemed to those who lived in the settlements nearest the Russian Jewish colony that it was an obvious piece of public spirit to at least try out all the legal value involved, to insist that American institutions were stout enough not to break down in times of stress and public panic. In fact, there was no other group of Americans available to whom the Russian Jewish colony might reasonably appeal. The political parties were much too timid

to take upon themselves the odium of anarchy and they were furthermore only too eager to use the hue and cry of anarchy to their own political advantage, posing as defenders of vested interests. While some of the churches spoke out later, at the time, of course, there was no way of knowing which clergymen would do so, and naturally the Russian Jewish colony had no personal acquaintance with them. For the first few days at least the churches were silent. Indeed the settlements have always cherished a secret apprehension lest they might in a given crisis act as so many of the churches do,—keep quiet and do nothing at all until the immediate crisis is past and public opinion set, thus leaving the unknown members of the community who are anxiously seeking help in the formation of their opinions, moral guidance as it were, utterly at sea. It is curious that at the moment the settlements themselves thought the first help might come from *Collier's Weekly* or the *American Magazine*, thus corroborating the words of Professor William James in regard to higher institutions in general, although he spoke solely in relation to colleges and universities:

It would be a pity if any future historian would have to write words like these: "By the middle of the twentieth century the higher institutions of learning had lost all influence over public opinion in the United States. But the mission of raising the tone of democracy, which they had proved themselves so lamentably unfitted to exert, was assumed with rare enthusiasm and prosecuted with extraordinary skill and success by a new educational power; and for the clarification of their human sympathies and elevation of their human preferences, the people at large had acquired the habit of resorting exclusively to the guidance of certain private literary adventures, commonly designated in the market by the affectionate name of ten-cent magazines."

The settlement might of course have waited until one of these beloved ten-cent magazines should have sent an intelligent man from New York to investigate the situation. Perhaps they would have added a detective, as McClure's previously had sent one to San Francisco to investigate its "graft" for it.

I am quite willing to predict that if this had been done the settlements would have given uniform testimony that anarchy as a philosophy is dying down, not only in Chicago but everywhere; that their leading organs have discontinued publication and that their most eminent men in America have deserted them; that even those groups which have continued to meet are dividing, and the major half in almost every instance calls itself socialist-anarchists, an apparent contradiction of terms, whose members insist that the socialistic organization of society must be the next stage of social development and must be gone through with, so to speak, before the ideal state of society can be reached, so nearly begging the question that many orthodox socialists are willing to join them; that anarchists have never had an elaborate organization, signs, or passwords, as the newspapers state, because the very philosophy of individualism prevents it.

If I personally had been consulted by this harbinger of justice, representing a ten-cent magazine, and if he were a gentle soul who would have indulged me in a little sermon on a pet topic of non-resistance, I should have pointed out to him that to my mind the danger from the American colonies of Russian refugees lies not in the philosophies they may hold but in the moral twist which comes to him who, because he has been hard driven, has justified terrorism; that this menace comes equally from the terrorist refugees and from the agents of the Russian government which itself has instituted the terrorism of the four hundred. Perhaps he would have permitted me to expatiate at some length, in which case I should have said that when the sense of justice seeks to express itself quite outside the regular channels of established government it is set forth on a dangerous journey inevitably ending in disaster, and that this is true in spite of the fact that the adventure may have been inspired by noble motives. In the course of a recent argument with a Russian revolutionist, he once repeated

to me the speech he had made to the court which sentenced him to Siberia. As representing the government against which he had rebelled, he told the court that he might in time be able to forgive all of their outrages and injustices save one, but that hundreds of men like himself, who were vegetarians because they were not willing to participate in the destruction of living creatures, who had never struck a child even in punishment because it was against their principles, who were consumed with tenderness for the outcast and oppressed and had lived for weeks among starving peasants only that they might cheer and solace them, that these men should have been driven into terrorism, and should feel impelled to "execute", as they call it, assassinate the Anglo-Saxon would term it, public officials, was something for which he would never forgive the Russian government. It was perhaps the heat of the argument, as much as conviction, which led me to reply that it would be equally difficult for society to forgive these very revolutionists for one thing they had done, and that was that they had re-instituted this use of force in such wise that it would inevitably be imitated by men of less scruple and restraint; that to have revived such a method in civilization, to have justified it by their disinterestedness of purpose and nobility of character, was perhaps the gravest responsibility that any group of men could assume. That the methods of terrorism have become justified in the minds of thousands of young Russian revolutionaries who have reacted against the outrages of the autocracy and who contend that it must be appealed to as a last resort induces them to justify this position to Americans with the statement that the number of violent executions in Russia do not in a given six months or a year equal the number of lynchings in America; that it is only a question of provocation before men will resort to it.

These two points of lawlessness justified by elaborate argument—one in Russia and one in America—seem to me matters of grave concern. All this I should have ventured to say to a hy-

pothetical representative; but of course a little talk like this could only be made to an organ which appeals to the entire people, a less inclusive audience would be sure to misunderstand.

After all, are the settlements not somewhat impertinent? In trying to state that facts of the case, is not true, as Professor Small said in the *Chicago Evening Post* of March 14, "that the settlements are doing that which the whole city should have done." To quote from him further "All that they desire is that nothing should remain hidden which may throw light on the affair. They wish to see that every means of getting information is exhausted before a final opinion is formed."

That the settlements feel a responsibility for this more sharply than the rest of the community does, is doubtless the result of propinquity.

Last week in New York Dr. John Elliott, of the New York Ethical Society, told me the following story: He was conducting a class in ethics with a number of East Side boys, and by way of illustration had told the story of Nero, expatiating at some length upon his wickedness, that among other things he had killed his grandmother, burned Rome, and so forth. Finding one of his auditors very indifferent to this stirring tale, he addressed him directly: "What do you think of such a man, Louis?" Louis shrugged his shoulders, and replied that he "didn't think nothing about him." Dr. Elliott, seeing that he had made a mistake in appealing to Louis's head rather than his heart, asked again with some heat, "Well, Louis, how do you feel about such a man?" Louis again shrugged his shoulders and replied with supreme indifference, "He ain't never done nothing to me." After all, we are amazingly dependent upon our experiences, not so much for our information and understanding as for the selection of objects which stir us to championship.

At the end of twenty years it seems absurd that the Chicago settlements should be explaining their position to the public upon these grave matters. They have received much generous support from Chicago; in many re-

spects they have been overestimated, but in a moment of great public excitement it is possible that they themselves are realizing for the first time that they have attained a professional standard of conduct and may perhaps begin to clear themselves of the charge of being amateur. This standard may demand that the newly arrived immigrant shall have his defense and his chance, in so far as the settlements can obtain it.

Some years ago when the mayor of Chicago was brutally assassinated and in the moment of excitement the first trial was considered hasty and inadequate, leading attorneys of this city insisted that the trial should be re-opened; that the case should be taken up to a higher court, not because there was any doubt that the condemned prisoner killed the mayor, but because the standards of the legal profession demanded that the case should be adequately and properly cared for. When the assassin of President McKinley was brought to trial in Buffalo, the legal profession there insisted that one of their number should defend him, because the professional ethics demanded that this should be done. The fact that it was a distasteful undertaking to the chosen representative had nothing whatever to do with it.

Quite as the legal profession feels its obligations in these matters, as a medical man would care for a wounded assassin as scientifically and as carefully as for a "leading citizen," so possibly the settlements are coming to a professional standard of conduct in regard to matters pertaining to foreign colonies and the interpretation of American institutions to them.

Certain books written by settlement residents are used in the department of social ethics in several American universities. Any value such books may have arises from the fact that they present a first hand study of social and ethical conditions in the immigrant quarters and represent convictions upon which settlement residents are willing to act. That these convictions lead them to advise a different treatment for "anarchy" from that pursued by the Chicago police department may pos-

sibly mean that they are advocating an effective treatment instead of a stupid treatment.

In the first place the Chicago police department made utterly contradictory statements as to the number of anarchists which the town contains. Several days before the attack they declared that they had definite information as to a well laid anarchistic plot which would probably consummate in an assassination. So sure were they of this information that the chief himself, seeing a dark young man with a letter in his hand standing in his doorway at an unusual hour, concluded that he was an Italian anarchist about to carry out his part in this definite anarchistic plot. And yet when the police are put to it to give information, they are utterly unable to locate any such plot either among Italians or Russians, and are forced to the conclusion that whatever young Averbuch had in his mind, it was a solitary effort, "sporadic" anarchy, if anarchy at all, as was also the case of Alia in Denver, and seems to be the case of Silverstein in New York. There is no method by which any community can be guarded against sporadic efforts on the part of half-crazed, discouraged men, save by a sense of community right and security which will include each one.

One is driven at last to the Christian assertion that society is not safe unless it includes "the least of these," and that this inclusion must be world wide with compassionate understanding for the outcast of every land, drawing him in to the reassurance and warmth of a fellowship against which he could not strive if he would. I suppose that all of our religious teaching has to be translated into experience before we really believe it. But this conviction that a sense of fellowship is the only implement which will break into the locked purpose of a half-crazed creature bent upon destruction in the name of justice, certainly came to me through an experience, curiously enough, recited to me by an old anarchist.

He was a German cobbler who, through all the changes in the manufacturing of shoes, had steadily clung

to his little shop on a Chicago thoroughfare, partly as an expression of his individualism and partly because he preferred bitter poverty in a place of his own to good wages under a disciplinary foreman. The assassin of President McKinley on his way through Chicago only a few days before he committed his dastardly deed, had visited all the anarchists whom he could find in the city, asking them for "the pass-word," as he called it. They, of course, possessed no such thing, and had turned him away, some with disgust and all with a certain degree of impatience, as a type of the ill-balanced man who, as they put it, was always "hanging around the movement without the slightest conception of its meaning." Among other people, he visited the German cobbler, who treated him much as the others had done, but who, after the event had made clear the identity of his visitor, was filled with the most bitter remorse that he had failed to utilize his chance meeting with the assassin to deter him from his purpose. He knew, as well as any psychologist who has read the solitary history of such men, that the only possible way to break down such a persistent and secretive purpose was by the kindness which might have induced confession, which might have restored him into fellowship with normal men.

In the midst of his remorse, the cobbler told me a tale of his own youth; that years before, when an ardent young fellow in Germany, newly converted to the philosophy of anarchism, as he called it, he had made up his mind that the church, as much as the state, was responsible for human oppression, and that this fact could best be set forth "in the deed" by the public destruction of a clergyman or priest; that he had carried firearms for a year with this purpose in mind, but that one pleasant summer evening, in a moment of weakness, he had confided his intention to a friend, and that from that moment he not only lost all desire to carry it out, but it seemed to him the most preposterous thing imaginable. In concluding the story, he also said: "That poor fellow sat just beside me on my bench,—

if I had only put my hand on his shoulder and said: 'Now, look here brother, what is on your mind? What makes you talk such nonsense? Tell me. I have seen much of life, and understand all kinds of men. I have been young and hot-headed and foolish myself.' If he had told me of his purpose then and there, he would never have carried it out. The whole nation would have been spared this horror." He would always shake his gray head and sigh as if the whole incident were more than he could bear. One of those terrible sins of omission; one of the things he "ought to have done," the memory of which is the hardest to endure.

The far reaching consequences of this incident must be my excuse for this long paper. For many years differences of opinion have existed between public spirited citizens on the subject of restricting immigration and upon the treatment of refugees who have broken police or military regulations in order to escape from oppressive governmental conditions. If immigration laws are enacted which make it infinitely more difficult for Russian Jews to come to America, we shall close up the last loophole of escape for thousands of people who are living under an oppression and a persecution which are simply intolerable.

The statement has gone throughout the country that young Averbuch intended to kill the chief of police of Chicago because he represented a society of anarchists who advocated the killing of police as such. Even so eminent a man as Senator Lodge of Massachusetts, in a public address delivered in Boston before the City Club on March 20, said: "Within the last few weeks we have seen a murderous assault by an alien immigrant upon the chief of police of a great city, not to avenge a personal wrong but because he represented law and order." Senator Lodge made this a plea for further restrictive measures in our immigration laws. It is difficult to estimate the effect upon minds all over the country, most of them presumably less careful than that possessed by the senior senator of Massachusetts, and it is difficult to estimate the result

upon immigration legislation.

Because of its effect upon immigration laws, if for no other reason, it is most essential, first and foremost, to ascertain just what did happen, and what the social implications of the event mean. As we allow our public officials to act in this instance, so the American policy will be largely determined; so free speech, "freedom of assemblage," and all the other stirring words in the bill of rights will become interpreted; so may "our charter be torn," to use the pregnant phrase of Abraham Lincoln.

Let us review the situation as the police themselves state it. The police in New York beat a man over the head because he is talking about socialism on the street. The man has always been told that "free speech" is guaranteed in America and he is enraged beyond bounds by this treatment. Then he hears that the unemployed have been forbidden a permit to assemble in Union Square in order to state their case and to discuss measures of relief. This seems to him an invasion of the American guarantee to the right of "free assemblage" and he, therefore, from directions in the encyclopedia, prepares a bomb to throw at the police as a protest against their invasion of American rights as he conceives them. The police in Chicago prevent a parade of the unemployed, and threaten to break up a meeting in Brand's Hall if it shall be addressed by Emma Goldman. These two acts of the Chicago police worked upon the mind of the young Russian revolutionary named Averbuch and are the only psychological clue the police themselves give in support of their theory that he went to the house of the chief with the intent of assassination.

But with the curious logic of the policeman, the police of New York and Chicago both cite these two acts of violence which they themselves say were indirectly resultant from oppressive measures, as a justification for further repressive measures, and insist that unless further repressive measures are used, such acts will constantly occur.

When I first came to Chicago, in 1889, the events of the Haymarket riot

were already two years old, but during that time Chicago had apparently gone through the first period of repressive measures, and during the winter of 1889-1890, by the advice and with the active participation of its leading citizens, had reached the conclusion that the only cure for the acts of anarchy was free speech and an open discussion of the ills of which the opponents of government complained.

As many of you doubtless remember, great open meetings were held every Sunday evening in the recital hall of the then new Auditorium, which were presided over by such representative citizens as Lyman Gage, and where every possible shade of opinion was freely expressed. A man who spoke constantly at these meetings used to be pointed out to the visiting stranger as one who had been involved with the group of convicted anarchists, and as one who doubtless would have been arrested and tried but for the accident of his having been in Milwaukee when the explosion occurred.

One cannot imagine such meetings being held in Chicago to-day, nor that such a man should be allowed to raise his voice in a public assemblage presided over by a leading banker. What has happened to Chicago in the meantime? What change has come over our philosophy?

If the under dog were always right, one might quite easily try to defend him. The trouble is that very often he is but obscurely right, sometimes only partially right, and often quite wrong, but perhaps he is never so altogether wrong and pig-headed and utterly reprehensible as he is represented to be by those who add the possession of prejudice to the other almost insuperable difficulties in understanding him.

As for those who attempt to interpret him, when he is apparently in his worst temper, they may perhaps be cheered by a phrase often quoted by Matthew Arnold:

"Conscience and the present constitution of things are not corresponding terms. It is conscience and the issue of things which go together."



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

The first of Toritto's four thousand emigrants to America

The Effect of Emigration upon Italy

Toritto and San Demetrio.

Christopher Columbus the Second.

A Greek Colony in Southern Italy.

Antonio Mangano

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Emigrants from the large cities are few, but in these capital towns are kept the records of population for the entire province. With this in mind, I stopped one day at Bari, a beautiful city on the eastern coast, and the capital of the province of the same name. The modern buildings, fine public squares and general appearance of prosperity promised little of value for my purpose, and the surmise was correct. The people have good homes, business, chiefly manufacturing, is good, and there is little need for anyone to become an exile. The secretary's statistics furnished the usual array of facts—hundreds departing from the hill-towns, a high percentage of them young men. I closed the book. "There is,"

said he, "a small town west of us that has literally sent thousands to America within a very few years, and as a result there are great changes. The town is being entirely rebuilt. No, it is some distance from the railroad, but you can probably get a donkey or a diligence." It was as he said. The first part of my journey was by train, through well-tilled country, which at this season was all aglow with the delicate pink and white blossoms of countless almond trees. Then a little jolting stage carried me from the railroad to Toritto, my destination.

Toritto is not built upon a hill, it is in the heart of a fertile valley. Its streets, though characteristically dirty, frequently emerge in spacious open squares. The

houses, placed together in a tenement-like row, are of stone, covered with white stucco, and the streets are paved with a light, glaring stone. Not a blade of grass is to be seen, only an occasional dwarfed tree with dull green leaves which are a great relief to the eye. It was about two o'clock in the afternoon, yet the streets were empty, so I stepped into the only café on the principal square.

Four sleepy-looking individuals seated about a round table sipping black coffee roused up a little at the sight of a stranger, for anything American interests the dwellers of Toritto. I singled out the postman as the most wide-awake of the group and asked, "Where are all the people?" The entire town looked as lifeless as old Pompeii. He took another slow sip of coffee before he replied: "At this hour the children are at school, the *contadini*, such as have not gone to America, are out in the fields; the men in offices and stores are taking their daily nap." No strenuous life, nothing to be learned in haste here. I next asked my postman if he would kindly direct me to a good restaurant. He looked up with a smile, "I am afraid that while you are in Toritto you will have to fast; there is no restaurant. If you must eat, you will have to walk to the next town." As I had eaten nothing save a little bread and coffee in the early morning hours, I hastened on foot to try my luck at Grummo.

Connecting the two towns there is a fine, smooth road leading past olive groves, vineyards whose tender, green shoots were just springing from the pruned stalks, and fields of German beans, already in blossom, their snowy fragrance filling the air. Here and there groups of men lying beneath the soft, green shade of the friendly olive trees were eating their mid-day meal of macaroni, brought out to them by the women. All were chatting gaily. Frequently along the road I met teams of great, gray oxen, patiently pulling high-wheeled carts loaded with wood, brick or bags of grain. It was a pleasant picture of rural prosperity.

At Grummo I found the restaurant in

a little, dark room back of a general grocery store, from which it was separated by a heavy curtain. It was already occupied by loafers playing cards and drinking wine. The menu offered boiled eggs, bread and goat's cheese, but this was better than nothing, and I partook of it as heartily as possible before returning to Toritto.

The early history of this little town is very obscure. Prior even to 1,000 A. D. it was a tiny hamlet. Somewhere about this time, so the legend runs, two Calabrians, Pascione and Scarelli, secured a fine white bull, *toro bianco*, and went about the country exhibiting it. Finally they came to this little town, not far from Bari, and settled. People came from far and near to see this remarkable animal, and the district became known as *contrado del toro*, the country of the bull, and finally the town was called Toritto, from *toro*. Many who came to see the bull were pleased with the fertility of the soil and remained at Toritto. In the year 1400 several citizens of Bari went down to Toritto and took up agriculture, and these fields, which have borne crops for hundreds of years without rest or fertilizer, are still yielding olives, figs, almonds, grapes and all manner of vegetables. The population was further augmented by wandering shepherds, who found in the fields about Toritto good grazing for their flocks. They put up quaint little straw huts and made cheese, while they marketed in Brindisi, Bari and Lecce.

The people have engaged in agriculture, living in the town and going out to the fields every day. I learned that they have always been noted for their industry—this in spite of first impressions, or is it that the ambitious are all across the ocean? No, for the land is still well tilled, and the fields were scenes of industry when I walked back from Grummo. Perhaps this reputation has been acquired by the *contadini*. Toritto has also been fortunate in its climate. It is mild and even at all seasons and free from the dreaded malaria.

The town secretary, a hearty, jovial man, told me that the population of the

town today should number 12,000, but it is only 8,000. The other 4,000 are in America. Previous to 1900 only a few over 1,000 emigrated, but during the last six years over 2,900 have left Toritto, and 750 of this number were women and children. The number leaving was as follows:

1901—288	men and	100	women and	children
1902—334	"	100	"	"
1903—433	"	200	"	"
1904—431	"	150	"	"
1905—360	"	100	"	"
1906—305	"	100	"	"
1907— 75	"	25	"	up to April 1.

America to the interested group of *contadini*, who are always his eager listeners. His fine, dark eyes glowed reminiscently as he talked, and there was something very attractive in his manner. The pair of wooden crutches leaning against his chair testified mutely to his infirmity. Mr. D'Orsu, for such is his name, welcomed the newcomer cordially, and launched on the story of his life.

For a number of years he had tried to earn his living as a shoemaker in his native town, but he could not make enough to keep his family from want.



AN "AMERICAN BARBER"

When he had given me these figures, the secretary said: "I cannot tell you anything more, but there is a man across the street you may like to meet. He is called 'Christopho Colombo,' because he was the first man from this town who went to America. He was only a poor, crippled shoemaker when he went away, but he has made enough to live in ease."

It was no trouble to find this latter-day discoverer. He was seated, a middle-aged man of medium height, in front of his little leather-shop, telling stories of

One day he heard of a poor, ignorant man from the Basilicata, the adjoining province, who had gone across the ocean to a great country called America, where he was earning as much in a day as he could earn in a week at home. Neither he nor his fellow-townsmen had ever before heard of this country or knew how to reach it, but he determined to try. He made the long journey alone, and, arriving in New York, settled on East Eleventh street, where for fifteen years he did a good business mending shoes.



AMERICAN TENEMENTS

Houses built in Toritto by emigrants who have made money in the United States

Within a year he was able to send back money enough to pay for the passage of his two brothers. They, too, were thrifty and successful in the new world, and their good fortune fired the ambition of others. In less than ten years 3,300 had followed them.

Mr. D'Orsu said he had made three trips to America. On the second he took his wife and children with him. Even now he would be glad to return to America if he could, but he had neglected to take out citizenship papers, and now he is debarred because of his age and the strict laws against physical infirmities. Before I left he called his twenty-year-old son and introduced him. The lad is certainly no credit to his father in appearance, but I could scarcely believe my ears when in that sleepy little town, with chickens cackling in the streets, I heard genuine Bowery English in answer to my question, "Will you stay in Italy?"

"Naw, I'm goin' back ter New York."

"But why not stay here in your own town with your father and family?"

"Well, if I stay here, I have ter work fer a livin'."

"Don't you have to work in New York?"

"Naw," said he, "I can go out wid de boys and steal if I don't want ter work."

I wondered how many of this type there are among the young Italians, born as he was under the Stars and Stripes. I cannot believe that they are in a majority, yet my contact with Italians in America convinces me that many of the growing generation do not love work as their fathers do.

Mr. D'Orsu's little harness-shop shows no trace of American influence. It is small and dark, and, as he is an elderly man, he does none of the work now himself, but employs others, while he sits by the low, open door, dressed in American clothes, always ready to tell his visitors about America and his success there.

Just opposite Mr. D'Orsu's shop I saw the sign, *Barbiere Americano*—American barber. The proprietor greeted me warmly and took me into his shop, where, with much pride, he pointed out two real American barber chairs, which he had brought back with him from America. The room was large, scrupulously clean and up-to-date in its furnishings. He



OWNED BY ABSENTEE LANDLORDS

Houses built with American money made by emigrants from Toritto

deserves the patronage of the entire town, which he evidently has.

Though fond of America and proud of the fact that he lived there some years, he loved his native land better, and returned to end his days there. While we were talking, his son, a bright young fellow of seventeen, came in. His alert yet modest air and good manners were a strong contrast to young D'Orsu's East Side slouch and swagger, and his English was excellent. He was born in America and attended the public schools, and the life and language of his father's town were as foreign to him as to any American. He could speak only a few words in Italian, and could not and did not wish to adapt himself to the primitive conditions of life about him.

"How do you like to live here?" I asked.

"I don't like it at all," he replied. "My father made me come over to help him in the shop, but in a year or two I hope to return to New York and work for myself. I like American people, too; they are ever so much nicer than the people here."

These two young men were not the only ones in the town who spoke English, but who could not speak Italian. There are other sons of the returned emigrants, but, one and all, they are planning not how they may help to improve their home town, but how they may leave it and return to America as

soon as possible. So great has been the fever for emigration that there is not a single family of the 2,000 in the town that has not some relative in America.

But emigration is diminishing, and will of necessity be light for the next few years. Four thousand able-bodied workers have gone, and few of the remaining men can pass the physical examination or come up to the standard required for admission to the United States. The work in the fields and house-building is done by laborers who come from more crowded towns nearby. Many of these also catch the emigration fever and depart for America.

The effect of this remarkable exodus upon the town has been two-sided, like the effect upon the nation. The emigrants and their families have been benefited. There is no suffering in the town, and there are no beggars. Large amounts of money are coming in every year. Some men have returned with from 2,000 to 10,000 francs (\$400 to \$2,000), and between 700,000 and 800,000 francs (\$140,000 and \$160,000) are sent back through post-office orders each year. Some of this is left on deposit in the post-office, but most of it is being invested in real estate and in building an entirely new town outside the old one. There are no less than 200 new cottages already built, and many more are in process of erection, all called *le case Americane*, the American houses. Everything



EMIGRANTS OF THE FUTURE

Toritto's school children whose four thousand parents are in America

aspires to be American in Toritto. These houses are built either for the father or mother of the emigrant, or are awaiting his return, when he and his family expect to pass their days in comfort.

Unfortunately, the builders have no new ideas; the new houses are no improvement architecturally upon the old. They are all alike, one-story high, with a provision for a second story when needed. But they are larger, all provided with good-sized windows, and are finished more smoothly. They present a much neater appearance. There is no industrial awakening in the town, no apparent change in the mode of living. Except for the sums spent in the erection of new houses, paid to workmen from other towns, there is no money in circulation. Probably this is due partly to the fact that so few have as yet returned to remain in Toritto—barely thirty men with their families, all told.

One good influence which America is exerting upon Italy can be seen plainly in Toritto, the awakening desire for an education. The percentage of illiteracy was formerly very high, 90 per cent. Very few of the emigrants could either read

or write. Now some have learned by dint of hard work in night schools, but all appreciate the value of schooling, and Toritto's schools are filled with children. The remarkable part of it is that Toritto has now a larger percentage of her population at school than any other town, or even city, in Italy, even the famous old university town of Turin, with its thousands of students, taking second place. But it must be remembered that Toritto's population now consists mainly of women and children. Young men are scarce, but boys and girls are in abundance. I happened to be standing in the central piazza when the children were dismissed from school. The moment they spied me they all started on a run toward the stranger, crying "Un Americano, un Americano!" I tried to get a snapshot of them with my camera, but they kept so close to me and were so curious about the working of the *machina* that it was impossible until I discovered a flight of steps nearby. From this vantage point I was able to get a fairly good picture of this group of future American citizens. As I turned to leave they ran after me, many shouting out English words, especially "Good-

bye, good-bye." I learned that here, as elsewhere in the small towns, the lower classes of the schools are crowded, but the children leave as soon as they have learned to read and write. Out of all this throng, there were only six children in the sixth grade. America has done much for Toritto. Much more might be done, but for the ignorance of the people. Perhaps it will be accomplished by the oncoming generation of bright, active children.

At present, however, everyone is prosperous and happy. Only the landholders are grumbling because they cannot find enough men to care for their crops because wages have doubled and they are getting into debt.

Toritto is a splendid example of the fact noted elsewhere, that friends and relatives are a strong force in augmenting emigration. In Grummo, where I found the restaurant, only a short distance from Toritto, there are the same economic conditions, the people are engaged in the same pursuits, yet only a very few have emigrated, and these quite recently.

With Bari again as a starting point, I resumed my journey southward. The train wound now along the shore almost to the water's edge, and now turning inland rushed past luxuriant orange groves and open fields, dotted here and there with the fig tree and almond, and at length came to the ancient town of Brindisi. As it was centuries ago, so it is today, the principal port of departure for Greece and the East. There is nothing of interest to the average tourist in this sleepy old town. The only trace of its previous historic importance is the great granite column in the square, which marks the starting point of the famous Via Appia.

Going deeper down into the heel of the great boot, we reach the prosperous city of Lecce, with its narrow streets surprisingly clean, its modern stores and its general air of tidiness and thrift. Architecturally, it is one of the most interesting cities of southern Italy. Its houses are built of light-colored stone or finished in white stucco. The eaves pro-

ject over the streets, so that they form almost a complete shelter from the intense heat and the glaring white light. Some of the public buildings are good examples of Italian Renaissance. The irregular piazzas are surrounded with porticos, and everywhere are indications of prosperity. I was therefore not surprised to find that emigration from this city was insignificant prior to 1900, notwithstanding the density of the population in that entire region. Since 1900, however, the number has slowly increased, especially among the peasants. Very few of the town people leave their homes.

Retracing my steps to Brindisi, I took the main line for Naples, and, after riding through a fertile country for three hours, left the train at Taranto. Just before we reached the station I turned to a fellow-passenger and asked if he was acquainted in Taranto. He said he was a stranger, and bound for Albania, Greece, on a pleasure trip. He proved to be the arch-priest of San Demetrio. Eying me rather keenly, he asked: "What brings you to these parts? You are a foreigner." I told him that I was from America and making a study of emigration. His interest was at once aroused, and he said: "My own town is a center of emigration. If you care to go there and study conditions, my house is at your disposal. I will telegraph my steward to make provision for your entertainment." I thanked him and gladly accepted his invitation. Two days later found me speeding toward San Demetrio.

At Sebari, where I changed trains, I had to spend five hours, from midnight till dawn. This was the site of ancient Sybaris, famed in classic times for its wealth and the voluptuous life of its inhabitants, so much so that from that time till this the word sybarite has been a term of reproach. Today there is not a trace of its former grandeur. The name and the station surrounded by sad and demoralized eucalyptus trees, are all that mark the spot. The dingy, ill-smelling waiting room was closed, and there was nothing to do but pace the narrow plat-

form or explore the surrounding country. Fortunately, it was a calm, mild night. The moon was shining, but a heavy fog, lying close to the ground, concealed all save the nearest objects. Not a living creature was in sight, but here and there a glowing spot of red, with tiny flames darting up into the mist, revealed a lone shepherd watching his flock. Now and then I heard the faint tinkle of a bell tied about some bell-wether's neck, and occasionally the deathlike stillness was broken by the cry of a shepherd lad or the bark of his faithful dog. Toward morning, the hoarse, dismal cry of night birds made the hours more lonely, and I was glad when the little train pulled into the station at five o'clock and I could resume my journey. When I had gone as far as the train would take me, I hired a tiny donkey to carry my luggage and plodded on foot the rest of the way.

After crossing streams and climbing mountains, I came to a point overlooking the picturesque little town of San Demetrio. It is worthy of an artist's brush. The town itself is built on the narrow crest of a small mountain which lies at

the base of much higher mountains. On one side the village is flanked by great peaks, but the other three sides command views of magnificent open country. Looking eastward, there is a wide expanse of productive table land extending to the sea, covered with olive groves and vegetable farms. To the north is a splendid panorama of rolling, irregular country terminating in majestic mountains, which are part of the Appennine range, and form a beautiful amphitheatre all set in a soft, blue haze. Looking southward, the eye rests upon little hills and valleys, flecked with tiny, gray villages. All is peaceful. The only sounds borne on the quiet air are the metal clang of a bell, where goats nibble on the mountain side, or the familiar bray of a donkey.

The streets of San Demetrio are narrow and tortuous, winding abruptly right and left, up and down, according to the irregularity of the mountain surface. The dull gray huts are like most peasants' houses, built of cement and stones gathered together from the river beds, the rough, open door serving for both



Map of San Demetrio



SAN DEMETRIO

window and chimney. Here and there one sees a house finished in white, and possibly with windows. These are usually the property of returned emigrants. Sanitary conditions are abominable; the streets are the dumping ground for all sorts of refuse, in which the town herd of pigs revel to their hearts' content.

I made my way to the *Palazzo Marini*, the house of the arch-priest, and was received so very cordially that I made his home my headquarters, and from it visited other towns in the vicinity.

The people of San Demetrio, though at the present time loyal Italian subjects, came originally from Albania, Greece. They fled for their lives from the vengeance of the Turk after a heroic but futile attempt to free themselves from his hated yoke. Thousands of Greeks have exiled themselves after each fruitless rebellion and found permanent homes in Calabria and Sicily. It is estimated that there are nearly half a million of these Greek immigrants in this part of Italy.

It was about 1475 that San Demetrio was founded by some of the fugitives. The little group was received by the abbot of the Basiliano monastery. He looked upon them as colonists of his own personal property and exercised despotic authority over them. For three centuries after they continued to be subject to the various abbots and priestly rulers. To impress upon the people of the colony the superiority of the abbots over the noblest among them, it was the law that the

mayor of San Demetrio must on every Easter Sunday clean out the stable of the abbot. With the passing of time, however, these Albanese have gradually emancipated themselves from their rulers, and, although now good Italian citizens, they have certain customs and practices which constantly remind them of the land from which they originally came. Though understanding Italian, they speak a *dialetto Albanese* among themselves, in which occur many Greek words. The churches of these colonies belong to the Greek branch of the Roman Catholic church, and consequently the priests are allowed to marry and to wear beards.

Through court influence, as early as the time of Pope Clement II, whose mother was an Albanese, a seminary for the training of priests in the Greek Roman Catholic rite was established here. A goodly number of men famous in Calabrian history received their inspiration in it, and the school has been a great power in the central district. It is most extraordinary that this little town should have given such a large group of famous men to Italy. The name of Domenico Mauro, the incarnation of the republican ideal, a poet of no mean caliber, and a terror to the Bourbons, is as much beloved in Calabria as that of Garibaldi is in other provinces. Nicola Teno, a political economist of national fame; Antonio Marchiano, renowned as a Greek scholar and a lover of liberty, refusing in 1848 the Bishop's cross in order to fight against the Bourbons; Guiseppe



SCHOOL IN SAN COSINO

In the center is the teacher who gets fifteen dollars a month for his services

Cadicano, poet of the Albanian colony of New York; Fidele Marchiano, confessor to Napoleon at St. Helena; De Grazie Demetrio, Latin and Greek scholar; Gerolomo Derada, a poet of great ability, considered by some as superior to Pindar, and many other names widely known in Italy belong to San Demetrio.

During the nineteenth century many men other than priests received their preparatory education in the *collegio* of San Demetrio. In recent years the lay influence has been so strong that the school has been wholly transformed, and is no longer under the supervision of the church. It is today a first-class liceo, and maintained entirely by the Albanese. They take great pride in speaking of it as *Il Collegio Albanese*. The director of the school took me to see the different departments, and as a climax showed me the room of natural history and the physical laboratory. "This," said he, "was fitted up by the gifts of our friends in New York city. Mr. Tocci, a reputable banker on Mulberry Bend, gathered contributions to the sum of 3,000 francs and personally contributed 1,000

francs for this object, and day laborers gladly contributed sums from five to twenty-five francs each." These people are proud of their race and a close bond of union exists between the colony and its emigrants.

In San Demetrio, as elsewhere throughout Italy, educated and cultured men are losing all respect for the church. Many are also losing all religious sentiment, and the students especially delight to proclaim themselves atheists. They are glad of any opportunity to show their hostility to the clericals, and there is just now a keen struggle between the lay supporters of the *collegio*, who are antagonistic to the priests, and the clerical party, which is endeavoring to regain control of the school. Here is a statement taken from the weekly paper published by the college. It is an appeal for funds to keep the school out of church hands:

The glorious legion of Garibaldi was well represented by young Albanese who in this *collegio* had gotten their noble ideals. I mention simply this of the revolution of the year of grace for Italy 1860, when these Albanese, disdaining the anathemas of the pope, and death upon the field of battle,



FARMERS IN SOUTHERN ITALY

With the antique zappa they are preparing the soil for crops

rushed enthusiastically to the defense of their native land. There are now 165 students in the school and many others would gladly come if we had room for them. Still there are those who wish to return to the old ways. Let the Albanese rise and provide the means which the school needs, and put an end once for all to the utterances of busy-bodies who enjoy the bishop's table, without expending any effort. Four times happy is he who can live without thought, and find at the end of the year 6,000 *lire* under his pillow.

The peasants who return are, as a rule, opposed to the clericals, if not to the church itself, because of the Protestant or socialistic influences which surround them here.

The records of San Demetrio show that the first emigrants to leave the town were induced to by an adventurous priest from Acri, an adjoining town. This priest asked for companions to join him in trying their fortunes in the new world. In 1875, accompanied by five other seekers of fortune, he set out by sailing vessel for Brazil. It took them three months to reach their destination. This was the beginning. Other groups followed soon after. Five hundred and eighty-three emigrated between the years 1885 and 1892, while 476 crossed the ocean between 1893 and 1900. The following table shows the numbers that left during the succeeding six years:

1901— 91
1902—137
1903—126

1904—130 men—41 women and children
1905—176 " —56 " "
1906—203 " —75 " "
1907— 98 " —15 " up to April 1.

In 1901, including the 1,000 emigrants scattered throughout the Americas, the population of San Demetrio was 5,125. This 1,000 added to 1,097 who emigrated during the past seven years leaves the present population at a few over 3,000. It should be noted that during the past four years the number of women emigrants has been steadily increasing. There is scarcely a family in the town that has not some member in America. The desire to emigrate is exceedingly strong. The mayor, in a joking way, said to me: "The movement began with the workingmen. Today the mayor and priest would go if they could." In fact, the priest had already told me he thought of coming to America. "So many have already gone away that we have nobody to light the street lamps at night, although they are few and far between."

Hands are wanting in every line of work. Fifteen years ago there were no less than 6,000 sheep and goats pastured on the hills and fields about San Demetrio. Today not over 2,000 can be found. Men now refuse to be shepherds and live in little straw huts, out in all kinds of weather, for fifteen cents or twenty-five cents a day. The fact that 2,000 or more of the inhabitants of San Demetrio are in America and doing so well that

they prefer to remain there makes it necessary for the San Demetrians to import laborers from Corigliano, Acre and Cosenza. Naturally, this state of affairs has greatly improved the condition of those who remain. Wages were formerly twenty-five cents a day, but now they are from forty cents to fifty cents a day.

I learned also that by far the vast majority of emigrants from this town sail on prepaid tickets. Considerable money is sent back yearly, but not so much proportionately as emigrants from other towns send back. Four years ago there was in the post-office only 20,000

lire (\$400). To-day there is over 200,000 *lire* (\$40,000). Very little of this money is used in the general improvement of the town beyond the sums sent to equip the *collegio*. Some is invested in little plots of ground, or in purchasing a house for the emigrant's family. No new houses are being built in San Demetrio. There is not the slightest improvement in sanitary or living conditions. Many

a family which has been freed from want lives comfortably, and there is apparently little abject poverty. The inhabitants seem to be unaware that any other way of life is possible than that to which they are used. What the people of San Demetrio need is an object lesson such as our settlements furnish to the East Side.

Once a year the emigrants in New York send back a goodly sum of their hard-earned cash to the parish priest for a great *festa* in honor of their patron saint. Then there are music, processions, firing of cannon and fireworks, eating and drinking, and all are loud in their

praise of their patriotic townsmen.

As yet very few emigrants from San Demetrio have returned to remain. Not many years have passed since the workers began to go. Most of these are unfortunately compelled to live in large labor camps or in the slums, and so do not see what is best in American life. Some, however, who returned with a more or less exalted notion of living and dressing soon drifted down to the level of those among whom they live. The majority of San Demetrians who emigrate evidently do not intend to return. There are several abandoned families in



HILL TOWN WATER CARRIERS

the town, especially young married women whose husbands left for America shortly after marrying them, and once out of the country they do not care to be burdened with the responsibility of a young wife and child, and often marry another woman in America. The poor woman has either to fall back upon relatives, work in the fields or, worse than all, fall into evil ways.

The general verdict of San Demetrio's thoughtful citizens is that emigration has been more of an injury than a benefit to the town. The peasant families fare better, but the diminished bulk of agricultural products and the consequent rise in price of food bear heavily upon the storekeepers, professors and all of the *civile* class, whose salaries have received no proportionate increase.

It will be easily seen that the effects of emigration upon San Demetrio are very different from the effects upon Toritto. In Toritto the advantages seem to be general. The whole town has profited; there is a noteworthy abnase

of destitution, scores of new and better houses are being built, and the schools are crowded and conducted with very good order. In San Demetrio no building is going on, few transfers of property are made, and there is surprisingly little increase in the school attendance, when we consider its college, which has turned out so many eminent men in the past. How can it be that so many wholly illiterate can live side by side with cultured professors who have traveled around the world and receive no stimulus?

I think a partial explanation of this is found in the fact that in Toritto most of the land has always been in the possession of the people who tilled it. Wherever the *contadini* own the land, little real misery is seen, and the people have a great love for the soil. In Toritto it has not been necessary, except in the case

of the crippled shoemaker, but a desire to advance in the world, that caused emigration. Hence the emigrants all plan to return to Toritto.

In San Demetrio the land which originally belonged to the abbot and portly dukes has been inherited by their descendants. The *contadini* have always rented the land from these large landholders, and have had to accept the terms of the *signor padrone*. The Marini family, to which the arch-priest belongs, goes back for over two centuries, and owns several thousand acres, which is rented to the peasantry. The future of these grand *signori* is greatly endangered by the departure of these people, who find life in America so much easier and more congenial that they do not intend to return to their home.



COLLEGIO ITALO ALBANESE



Muir Woods—A National Park

Charles Mulford Robinson

Practical America has not given to many places names that paint word pictures or create poetic images, without the need of explanation or translation. In fact, "the Golden Gate" is a name pretty much by itself in this respect. And because its picture is so simple, so obvious, so comprehensible by every degree of imaginative faculty, our thoughts when it is named are fixed ever on the opening to the shimmering golden sea and are forgetful of the frowning mountain on the one side or of the lawns of the Presidio on the other. But in San Francisco itself, Mt. Tamalpais is as dear a topographical feature as is the golden pathway to the ocean; the cars on the mountain railroad carry many thousand passengers in the year, and they who have had the view from the summit are not likely to forget its glory, or the romantic mystery of the primeval forest of redwood that clothes a cañon on the mountain's ocean side.

One can reach the border of this forest by a branch of the Tamalpais scenic railroad. It leaves the main line about half way up the mountain and runs a distance of two and one-half miles into the edge of the wilderness. Yet it is not really a wilderness, for a wagon road leads into the cañon, and there are paths in it, and many, many people visit it to enjoy its gushing springs, its lovely flowers, and to marvel at the gigantic trees, some of which are 300 feet in height. And only seven miles away in a straight line, and only two hours in time by the circuitous route that one must travel by boat and train, is the great city. To no other large city in the world is so superb a forest tract as accessible.

Years ago other slopes of the mountain were covered by the redwood; but the other cañons drain into the bay, and it was easier for the lumbermen to handle the wood in them than in this one which drains into the sea; and so Muir Woods, as the tract is henceforth to be called, was saved for a time. But that time might not have lasted long had not a

public spirited citizen determined that the redwood cañon should be preserved forever to the people.

William Kent, a business man, dividing his interests between Chicago and Marin county, California, purchased the tract for the express purpose of having it accepted as a government reserve. This is not as easy a matter as it seems, for ordinarily an act of Congress is necessary before a deed of this character can be accepted, and Congress has learned not to accept for the government everything that is offered to it. Gifford Pinchot, President Wheeler of the University of California, the superintendent of Golden Gate park in San Francisco, the local chief inspector of the government forest service, all co-operated in this instance,—for there was need of haste, as a water company was trying to condemn part of the tract,—and exactly seven days after the execution of the deed by which Mr. and Mrs. Kent conveyed the property to the government, Mr. Pinchot triumphantly telegraphed to the donor: "Redwood Cañon accepted. You have rendered a great public service."

This was January 2, 1908. The tract contains 295 acres, all heavily wooded with virgin timber, mainly redwood and Douglass fir; and the government accepted the title under the almost forgotten act of June 8, 1906, which authorizes the secretary of the interior to do this in special instances. It means not merely the preservation of a grove of giant redwood, but the preservation of a grove that tens of thousands may easily visit any day; the establishment for San Francisco, and for all the cities on the bay, of a park of extraordinary interest, and a gift which, unique and princely to begin with, will steadily grow in value. President Roosevelt, in writing his appreciation of the gift to Mr. Kent, said he would like to call it the Kent Monument—greatly as he admired John Muir. Then followed a characteristic correspondence, which perhaps it is worth while to give, for its personal revelation:



From Mr. Kent:

My dear Mr. Roosevelt:

I thank you from the bottom of my heart for your message of appreciation, and hope and believe it will strengthen me to go on in an attempt to save more of the precious and vanishing glories of nature for a people too slow of perception.

Your kind suggestion of a change of name is not one that I can accept. So many millions of better people have died forgotten that to stencil one's own name on a benefaction seems to carry with it an implication of mundane immortality as being something purchasable.

I have five good, husky boys that I am trying to bring up to a knowledge of democracy and to a realizing sense of the rights of the "other fellow," doctrines which you, sir, have taught with more vigor and effect than any man in my time. If these boys cannot keep the name of Kent alive, I am

willing it should be forgotten.

I have this day sent you by mail a few photographs of Muir Woods, and trust that you will believe, before you see the real thing (which I hope will be soon), that our nation has acquired something worth while.

Yours truly,

WILLIAM KENT.

From the president:

The White House, Washington.

My dear Mr. Kent:

By George! you are right. It is enough to do the deed and not to desire, as you say, to "stencil one's own name on the benefaction." Good for you, and for the five boys who are to keep the name of Kent alive! I have four who I hope will do the same thing by the name of Roosevelt. Those are awfully good photos.

Sincerely yours,

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

Feeble-Mindedness and Juvenile Delinquency

A Study from Experience

Elizabeth G. Evans

Trustee of the Lyman and Industrial Schools, Boston

Mary W. Dewson

Superintendent Parole Department for Girls

It is a fact of common knowledge that certain inmates of reformatory institutions are so defective in their mental equipment and in their power of judgment and self-control that no training can fit them for life in the community. It was not, however, until the autumn of 1904 that the trustees of the Lyman and Industrial Schools undertook to definitely grapple with this problem: by securing the services of a specialist who should examine the defective and markedly peculiar boys and girls; by determining experimentally how such boys and girls should be dealt with; by studying statistically the careers of those who it was decided should go out into the world.

By these means it was hoped to throw light upon a baffling problem and to enable the trustees, in dealing with their wards in the future, to profit by past experience.

PART I

STATE SCHOOL GIRLS

It was the classification of the mentally defective girls in one cottage, begun in the State Industrial School at Lancaster in 1902, which first forced the feeble-minded problem into prominence. By the summer of 1904 the accommodation in this cottage proved insufficient. The institution was also overcrowded; and the question arose as to the future of girls who were being held year after year in a school whose purpose was to fit girls for life in the community. Could these feeble-minded girls ever be sent out into the world with safety to themselves or to society? Experience has amply shown that the attempt to deal in the world with girls of inferior mental grade, of defective will power and uncontrolled sexual impulses, is nothing

less than a desperate undertaking.

But if girls of this class are not to be placed out, what can be done with them? Are they proper subjects for custodial care? The Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded at Waverley already possesses a custodial department to which any person who has been certified as a "suitable subject" may be committed by a judge of probate (R. L., Ch. 87, Sec. 118). What constitutes a "suitable subject" is not defined by the statute, nor has it yet become a matter of scientific definition. The question thus is in process of determination by principles of common sense as case after case comes up for judgment. It is the thesis of this paper that lack of capacity for self-direction and self-support rather than mere lack of scholastic capacity is the proper ground for custodial care.

For the purposes of the present inquiry 1,186 girls, this being the whole number in the care of the Industrial School between October 1, 1900, and December 1, 1907, whether in the institution or outside and whether now in custody or having passed out of it, may be roughly divided into the four following classes:

Feeble-minded and should have custodial care without trial on parole:

I. Those obviously incapable of self-direction and self-support.....	23
II. Those whose incapacity for self-direction and self-support is less obvious because they are brighter..	45
	68

Sub-normal and should be tried on parole:

III. Those whose capacity for self-direction and self-support is a question	82
IV. Those who are heavily handicapped by mental or moral defects.....	183
	265

Proportion who need custodial care 5 7/10%
Proportion who should be tried on parole22 3/10%

Of the twenty-three girls in class I upon March 1, 1908, there were:

In the Industrial School.....	3
In Waverley	19
Tried outside with bad results and now at large	1
Total of class I.....	23

The nineteen girls sent to Waverley went without trial on parole.¹ The only girl of this class put on parole was M. S., clearly feeble-minded, but gentle and good in the school, and much beloved there. Her mother was a rough, turbulent woman with a bad reputation and a drinking husband. In the hope that if M. got into a good place she might attach herself and stay until after she was twenty-one, when she had been for almost four years in the school she was placed out on parole. But the moment she was out in the world she showed qualities never before suspected. She was wild about the boys, would go off with them when pretending to be at church, and would climb out of her window at night. There was no limit to her deceit. Presently her mother carried her away and married her that very night to a nephew of her husband's whom M. had never seen before, a wretched, loafing fellow, whom M. has since deserted because he did not support her. A baby was born last August and died. M., whose health is broken, is now living in her mother's degraded home. It was mistaken kindness that gave her a trial in the world. Had she been sent to Waverley she might have lived her life out, safe from harm's way, and happy and useful.

There is no question but that girls of this class should have custodial care.

Of the forty-five girls in class II, March 1, 1908, there were:

In the school never tried outside.....	11
At Waverley, sent from the school without trial on parole.....	9
At Waverley, sent after trial outside the school	9
On trial, having done well for less than eight months	2
Failures in various degrees.....	14
Total of class II.....	45

Some of the failures in class II are:

M. T., committed as far back as May, 1897, had been out nights and had an appetite for strong drink. Both parents were dead. She was kept in the school in all for two years and five months; was tried also outside in six

¹Including one boarded out with her illegitimate baby for a short time.

different places. Shortly before she was twenty-one, in May, 1902, she became pregnant. She married the father of the child and has since had several other children. Her husband is an incapable creature who keeps losing his jobs and the condition of the family is pitiful.

M. S. M. had a respectable mother but an intemperate father. She was sent home on trial as one chance before going to Waverley. She had an illegitimate child whom she deserted, and later another, who was syphilitic. It was too late to get her into Waverley. She was last seen in the company of sailors.

J. M. had a drinking father and mother, and the family were considered a bad lot by the Associated Charities. J. was kept for two years in the school but she could never learn to tell time and could barely read or write. She was tried outside in four places. Not long before she became twenty-one she had an illegitimate child. She and the baby were then put in an excellent place together. The employer, a woman of dominant character was deeply interested in J., who stayed on with her for six months after she was twenty-one; but then the baby died and J. soon went back to her mother. The baby was feeble-minded and J. developed epileptic fits.

D. W. was the daughter of a drinking man. At the time of her commitment, a sister had had an illegitimate child and D. was thought to be pregnant. She was gentle and good at the school and when placed out she stayed in one family for almost three years; but when she became twenty-one she immediately went to a disreputable sister. Later she was reported to be leading a dissipated life. Her connection with a married man led to the breaking up of his family. The chief of police has recently warned D. that she must keep quiet or she will be arrested.

M. D. came of wretched people; both parents were intemperate, and her father had abused her mother until her mind was affected. Before commitment M. had been incorrigible, addicted to staying out nights, unchaste, etc. When placed she was carefully guarded; but

she ran away and married a man of about the same mental grade as herself, who had been in prison for setting fire to buildings. They have lived in a miserable way and when seen recently she was in a wretched condition, with no food, no money—mercifully so far no baby, a truly pitiable creature with no outlook before her.

Other girls of this class are:

L. L., committed to Sherborn Prison for night walking.

E. M., syphilitic, and allowed to go with her mother to Nova Scotia.

M. B., married to a dissolute fellow of low mental grade; three babies, all dead; M. bearing an unsavory reputation.

A. G., with specific disease, guarded with great care till she was twenty-one; recently heard of as a waitress in a hotel and as rooming in a disreputable quarter of the city.

And so on.

There remain just two girls of this class who so far have not shown themselves incapable of lives in the world. They are:

M. W., committed November, 1902, having been picked up drunk on the streets. During her long stay at the school she could barely learn to tell time, but she was useful and good and had no bad desires. It was, however, her settled intention to marry as soon as she should get her freedom, as she considered it a disgrace to be an "old maid." The immediate members of her family were degenerate and forlorn, but when she came of age last November she was sent to a respectable aunt who had offered her a home. It is intended to follow her history as it develops.

The only other girl who is classed as a success is O. R., who was in the school for over five years and who was placed out last August. There are little children in the family to whom she is attached and she is well protected from the temptations of the world. She is subject to periodic attacks of depression and sullenness, but otherwise she is pleasant and quite a good worker. While in the school she showed licentious tendencies, and was a girl who it was horrible to think might ever bear children. Her

mother was a half-breed Negress and Indian, whose two other daughters were prostitutes. Under the present circumstances O. seems safe. But will she be different if she stays there until she is twenty-one?

The experience with the girls of class II can be summarized as follows:

These girls are mentally somewhat below the normal level, but under regular control and supervision, they can carry on fairly well such work as is given them. The power to do this, however, is not well sustained, and this, combined with their need of constant protection, causes them to frequently lose their positions. Moreover, as soon as supervision and control are relaxed such girls are found to be wholly incapable of getting on in the world. Their general intellectual resistance is so weak and their intellectual power so poor, that they are unable to meet the common difficulties and evils of life and are carried helplessly in the wrong direction. That it was possible to keep such a girl temporarily safe by using great vigilance, was demonstrated with many of the twenty-three failures of class II. The end, however, has been invariably the same.

While on trial some of the girls became too debauched for admission to Waverley, thus losing their chance; and others, before being sent, became the victims of experiences which might have resulted in pregnancy or disease. In the face of these facts, the end to be striven for is the commitment of such girls to custodial care as soon as they are recognized. For them the expensive training of an industrial school is not warranted. They are a clog in its wheels. Parole work is thrown away in their case. They take an undue proportion of a visitor's time. To work against certain failures discourages a visitor whose whole strength is needed for the hopeful girls. Moreover, the career of irreclaimable girls harms the standing of a reform school in the community and destroys many opportunities for its legitimate charges.

Of the eighty-two girls in class III, upon March 1, 1903, there were:

In the industrial school, never tried outside	11
Sent to Waverley after trial outside....	8
Out of the state, conduct unknown.....	3
Paroled and successes.....	21
Failures in varying degrees.....	39
Total of class III.....	82

But how pitiful has been the success of those classed above as "successes!" Two of them have had an illegitimate child but have since married and are good though not efficient mothers; one has married a wretchedly poor widower with a family for whom she has neither the willingness nor the ability to care; eight were practically never let out of sight and it is hard to believe that they will not go wrong when looking out for themselves; nine others were kept safe with a degree less of care, but the outlook for them is not bright; one has been four times returned to the school and has had fourteen different places.

Among the thirty-nine classed as "failures in various degrees" are twenty-one who are now of age, of whom four have each had two illegitimate children; three who have each had one illegitimate child; and ten who have been unchaste, of whom two have been in Sherborn Prison. Three of the above girls are married,—all wretchedly. Of the remaining seventeen who are still on parole, one has two illegitimate children and five have one each.

The following is an interesting illustration of hoping where there can be no hope:

B. D. is a girl whose case was many times considered. Previous to commitment to Lancaster her parents had had her examined with a view to sending her to Waverley; but the examining physician did not find her a suitable subject. She had then gone very far wrong. At Lancaster she showed herself a capable girl, was refined in her tastes, and played the piano; but when put on trial at home, her mother was wholly unable to control her. She was then tried in a place; but she took the first opportunity to be unchaste and to steal from her employer, and she was returned to the school, to

be kept there for eighteen months, until she was almost twenty-one. Dr. Fernald meanwhile examined her and thought her a typically feeble-minded subject of the higher grade; and he said he should not hesitate a moment to receive her. But her father, who is a man of character and intelligence holding a good business position, thought that through her long training at Lancaster she had made permanent progress, and urged that she should be tried again at home, saying that, should she show any tendency to relapse into her old ways, he would himself send her to Waverley. She behaved all right for two months until she was twenty-one, when she immediately ran away. Her father is distracted and is trying to find her and send her to Waverley.

However, in spite of the fact that even the successes among class III are almost failures, experience justifies the trial of such girls upon parole.

Of the 183 girls in class IV March 1, 1908, there were:

In the school never tried outside.....	62
Committed to insane hospitals.....	9
Conduct unknown	9
Paroled and successes.....	60
Failures in varying degrees.....	43

Total of class IV..... 183

Of those classed as doing well twenty have been on parole less than two years. Eight have had nine illegitimate children, but five of these girls were married later.

Of those classed as doing badly, eleven girls had thirteen illegitimate children.

As a class these girls are morally weak, unstable and erratic, subject to peculiar ideas, too easily and insufficiently excited emotions, uncontrollable bursts of anger, but with less lack of general intelligence than the three previous classes. None of them has ever been thought a suitable subject for Waverley.

GIRLS AT WAVERLEY

Since the year 1900, forty-five Industrial School girls have been sent to Waverley, of whom two were sent for observation. Of the whole number, nineteen were of class I, eighteen of class II and eight of class III. As to the

suitability of these girls for a feeble-minded school, the only possible question is in regard to one who was committed later to an insane asylum, and two others who may be insane. Of the remaining forty-two girls, Dr. Fernald considers every one of them suitable subjects for Waverley. Not one of them has ever run away, though the restraints put upon them are of the gentlest. That they can be detained without imprisonment and can be contented in the society of the definitely feeble-minded in itself is an evidence that they are feeble-minded too. To judge by their faces, they are for the most part smilingly happy. Under direction, their work has a distinct economic value. And the round of useful tasks and innocent pleasures which the social life of the institution offers, is in merciful contrast to the wretchedness and degradation which would surely await them in the world outside.

The point of interest for the future to develop will be whether these girls will really be detained through the child-bearing period of their lives. So far only five of them have been discharged, one to leave the state with her mother, and the others to be under close supervision by respectable relatives. Four Industrial School girls sent to Waverley in the early nineties have been there now for from fourteen to almost eighteen years.

Within the past three years, as girl after girl has been sent to Waverley, the question has arisen in regard to each, Will she be found a suitable subject? Can she be contented in a feeble-minded school? Is she simply licentious, like a multitude of other people, or will it be found that she classes in with the typically feeble-minded, born to be victims if exposed to temptation, but often gentle and good if shielded from a world with which they are congenitally unfitted to cope—girls who, to quote Dr. Fernald's words, if not protected develop into "instinctive criminals." The question of the ability of a feeble-minded school to handle girls of this class has been demonstrated,—and their fate if sent out into the world has been demonstrated, too, beyond a peradventure.

CONCLUSIONS

Were the policy adopted of sending all of class I and II to Waverley as soon as recognized and likewise certain of class III in the earlier stages of failure:

The school and the parole department would be set free for their legitimate work of reinstating in the world girls whom there is at least a fighting chance of reclaiming.

The state would be saved great expense from the breeding of defective and diseased children.

The community would be protected from demoralization, it being almost worse for girls of this type to marry and rear children than to become prostitutes.

A class of peculiarly defenseless girls would be protected from misery and degradation.

PART II

LYMAN SCHOOL BOYS

It was the urgency of the feeble-minded problem in regard to the girls that suggested the study of the same problem among the boys of the Lyman School at Westboro. In the autumn of 1904 a canvass of the inmates was undertaken with a view to bringing all who seemed in any way mentally defective before a specialist for examination and advice. Since this study was undertaken there have been, either in the school or outside under the care of the visiting department and thus liable to be returned should they fail to get on in the community, approximately 1,625 boys, which figure is taken as the number from which cases identified as mentally defective are selected. Among these 1,625 boys there were found:

Feeble-minded, and believed incapable of self-support or self-direction.....	26
Decidedly sub-normal but not believed to be custodial cases.....	24

50

Proportion of feeble-minded and sub-normal to the whole number..... 3%

The number of the subnormal would undoubtedly be very much larger were there a more thorough knowledge of the whole group.

Taking up first the study of the twenty-six feeble-minded boys, upon March 1, 1908, there were:

In the Lyman School, never tried outside	1
Sent to Waverley.....	18
Released on parole.....	7

26

The histories of four of the seven boys released on parole are so unexpected as to be worth recounting, as follows:

J. M. McS. was brought before the court for commitment to Waverley, but his people appeared in protest and the judge desired he should be given a trial with them. His home conditions were so miserable that under ordinary circumstances the trustees would have refused to place him with his parents. However, he is now in his nineteenth year and he has been on parole for two years and four months, living at home. He has worked most of the time and has committed no offence.

J. J. was classified as a boy who could not be expected to earn his living or keep out of trouble, but his commitment to Waverley was not attempted as the co-operation of his people could not be secured. He is now seventeen and he has been on parole for two years and five months. He has done well right along and earns \$7.50 a week in a shoe shop.

M. F. ran away from the Lyman School four times, the last occasion being the day after the judge signed his commitment to Waverley. He was found at home earning \$6 a week in a mill, and accordingly he was formally released to the care of his parents.

All the others of this group have earned their living, with the exception of T. C. now on parole for almost three years and idle most of the time, but harmless. He is supported by a mother and sister who make allowance for his incapacity and love him dearly.

Thus, of the above seven boys, believed to be so feeble-minded as to be incapable of self-support or self-direction, all but one has so far supported himself, and not one of them is known to have been an injury to the community.

Turning now to the disposition of the twenty-five sub-normal cases, upon March 1, 1908, there were:

In the Lyman School, never tried outside	6	
Runaways, conduct unknown.....	2	
		8
On trial; well behaved so far.....		8
On trial and failures; returned to Lyman School	3	
On trial and failures; criminal records	5	
		8
		24

Of the eight who have done well, however, one has been on trial for only a few weeks and another for less than a year, so the conduct of these two should more properly be called unknown. Were they so classed, we should have ten untried or unknown, eight failures, and only six successes.

The eight-boys classed as failures are:

J. R., who has a web hand. He is lazy and shiftless, and in all probability he will be a pauper and a vagrant. He comes of wretched people.

H. K. is nervous and lacking in self-control, and has heart trouble. He was at home on parole for over two years, but he was expelled from school and had not the health to work. Then he fell into the habits of a vagrant, and at the request of his parents he was returned to the school. His father is a fairly well-to-do Jew and is able to support his son, but his mother is a most unreasonable and uncontrolled woman.

W. J. C. was placed on parole in his most wretched home because he was too incompetent to be placed elsewhere. He worked irregularly for twenty-two months when he was arrested for some trifling matter and returned to the Lyman School. A brother is a runaway from Waverley.

F. C. was an illegitimate child who had been formerly in a Catholic Home and in the House of the Angel Guardian. He was a boy of depraved nature whose influence in the school was so demoralizing that he was transferred to the Massachusetts reformatory at Concord. He was recently released and went to a decent half-brother.

W. D. has a defective hand and wets his bed. He had formerly been at the truant school. His home was poor, his

father a drinking man. After two years and three months in the school he went out to a place, from which he was returned in a month; he was soon placed again and returned in three months; he was placed again and returned in one month; he was then kept a year and two months in the school for lack of knowing what else to do with him. Finally he was allowed to go home. He is idle, drinks, lives with a disreputable woman, and has been in the House of Correction for drunkenness and assault.

W. G. was recommended for Waverley, but improved after an operation for adenoids. He ran away from the school, broke and entered, and was transferred to Concord.

F. A. came to the school with incipient consumption. He was a boy of criminal instincts and proved to be a determined runaway. He was transferred to Concord as a protection to the community.

J. B. has a most pitiful story. His mother has a bad reputation, drinks, and is miserably poor. His father was a drunkard and became insane. A half-brother who is called a "hard ticket," has been frequently arrested for drunkenness; recently he was said to be a consumptive. When J. came to the school he had heart trouble and syphilitic eyes, and he had been told he would become blind. His health had been injured among other things by bad habits and cigarettes. But he was not considered a suitable subject for Waverley, and after two years in the school he was allowed to go to his mother, there being nothing else to do with him. A year later he was sentenced to Concord. It is hard to see how he can ever get on in the world and the outlook for him is most miserable.

The six boys classed as successes are:

F. H., on trial for three years and then returned to the school for stealing \$40. On a second trial he has done well for now almost three years. He is, however, a very unbalanced boy.

D. B. looks perhaps more of a fool than he is; certainly it was hard to think when he went out into the world that he could get on. He is now ap-

proaching his majority and has been on parole for three years. He has earned his living right along, working at various jobs, mostly as farm hand or laborer; he is now driving an express team. He is always a butt on account of his foolish ways, but he is a respectable young fellow.

F. R. recently died from tuberculosis of the knee, having been on parole for over three years. He made some progress in capacity, but was of a very cross-grained disposition. He earned his living ever since he was fourteen years of age and had forty-seven dollars in the bank when he died.

G. C. had been in the care of the State Board of Charity as a neglected child. He is a well-disposed lad and will earn his living if his health allows. He is at present back at the school ill with rheumatism. He has been on parole for four and one-half years, and is now in his twentieth year.

W. A. A. belongs to respectable people who when W. was ready to be released on parole, moved into the country so that he could work upon a farm. That was almost three years ago, W. being then over seventeen years of age. He did well at farm work for about six months and then enlisted in the navy.

A. W. is notably lacking in judgment; an operation for adenoids resulted in great improvement in his condition. He has now been for one year at work upon a farm. He lights matches in the barn; but his employer nevertheless keeps him because he is such a good worker!

A comparison of the careers of the boys of this group with those who are distinctly feeble-minded indicates that, whereas the latter have shown themselves to be a harmless set of fellows and most of them self-supporting as well, the majority of those of the higher grade bid fair to swell the criminal element in the community.

BOYS SENT TO WAVERLEY

It was stated above that eighteen of the feeble-minded group were sent to the School for the Feeble-Minded; and the question arises whether some of the sub-

normal boys who have proved failures, instead of having been sent out into the world, should not have been likewise sent to Waverley. Thus it is pertinent to inquire what success the Feeble-Minded School has met with in handling Lyman School boys.

Adding to the eighteen boys sent to Waverley since October, 1904, eight other boys sent in previous years, we find that twenty-six Lyman School boys have been at Waverley. Of these Dr. Fernald classes fourteen as "suitable" and twelve as "unsuitable,"—two of these latter having turned out to be more insane than feeble-minded, and ten others being "unsuitable" because, to quote Dr. Fernald's words, "the most limited amount of liberty allowed our patients was more than they could handle. They were unsuitable, because they couldn't be kept here without prison restraint." In point of fact, the twelve "unsuitable" boys all ran away, as did one of those classed as "suitable," while another of these was removed by his mother. This leaves only eleven Lyman School boys at Waverley. Further, of these eleven, five have gone to Waverley very recently, leaving only six who have so far proven themselves sufficiently docile to be dealt with in an institution of this character.

Concerning the runaways, Dr. Fernald says:

We are in touch, I think, with almost every one of these boys who ran away and most of them are doing well. In these cases it has seemed better to keep an eye on them rather than to try to keep them here when we knew conditions were such that it was impossible to. The type of desperate criminals like H., B. and J. should never be sent to an institution for the feeble-minded.

The three boys to whom Dr. Fernald here refers have all since been in Concord; as have three others. But one of them earned good wages for a while before he was sent to Concord, and all of them are now free. One of them (whose sister has recently gone to Waverley) has married. He will be a poor provider, for it is said he has never had steady work. Of one of the runaways nothing is known; but ten others have been heard from at one time or another

as at work. One is now in the navy. The two classed as "suitable" who have left Waverley have done particularly well.

Thus it appears that most of these run-aways from Waverley, like most of those released on parole from the Lyman School, have shown themselves more or less capable of maintaining themselves in the world, and, at any rate, they are not known to have injured the community; the boys who did worst are the ones who are least feeble-minded—therein corresponding again to the boys paroled from the Lyman School.

CONCLUSIONS

Taking all the foregoing facts together, the following deductions seem warranted:

The number of feeble-minded and sub-normal cases identified among the Lyman School boys has been an unexpectedly small proportion of the whole number dealt with.

Of those sent to Waverley, the large per cent who ran away shows that few of the mentally defective Lyman School boys are sufficiently docile to be treated as custodial subjects unless they should be imprisoned.

A considerable per cent of both feeble-minded and sub-normal cases have shown themselves capable of self-support and of decent conduct.

The known failures have all been among the higher grade cases, who by no possibility could be dealt with in a school for feeble-minded, and who, if they injure society, must be dealt with as criminals.

The above deductions, taken together, make it improbable that custodial care will ever prevail to any considerable extent for mentally defective Lyman School boys.

CONCLUSIONS EXPLAINED

The diametrically opposite conclusions reached for boys and for girls demand

an explanation. *Prima facie* an equal number of mentally defective boys and girls are born into the world. Do fewer of such boys get into reform schools? There are various reasons why this might be so. For one thing: if boys commit sexual faults society takes no heed. Again, boys who are put away are usually offenders against property, and some feeble-minded boys may keep out of troubles of this kind just because they are dull and unenterprising; whereas girls of that type are liable to be made a prey by bad men. Then, again, boys as they get older are kept under some sort of discipline by the need of working if they would live. They cannot support themselves by their vices as girls can. On the contrary, their vices which are an expense, may even be to some degree held in check by the meagerness of their earnings. It is the belief of one having wide experience that many of them satisfy their sexual desires by self-abuse, while such practices in women only whet desire.

If feeble-minded men marry, they will no doubt be poor providers. But even so, the calamity to the family is nothing like so great as if a wife who must manage the house and rear the children is feeble-minded. The possibility of propagating their kind is, of course, equal in a father and a mother, but this is a contingency which society cannot guard against so long as people take care of themselves and do not molest others. All of which goes to justify the conclusion that the feeble-minded problem may almost be disregarded in connection with a boys' reform school, while in connection with a girls' reform school it takes on very large proportions.

Agrarian Pooling in Kentucky¹

John L. Mathews

The farmers of Kentucky and the neighboring states have been involved for some time in a movement for securing higher prices for their crops. The methods of combination and monopoly which, largely at their instigation, had been denied to corporations by constitution and statute, have been revived for their benefit; and irrevocable agency contracts of a sort which would make the fortune of any commercial "trust" have been declared legal when concerned with products of agriculture. There is probably not a crop grown in the central states which has not in some measure, however slightly, felt, locally or generally, this growing tendency to "hold together." But it has remained for the tobacco raisers to galvanize the movement into life and to produce an illustration of agrarian combination which is, in our national experience, unique.

The tobacco war, which has raged intermittently and recently with increasing bitterness in Kentucky and Tennessee, presents many interesting topics for study; for it has developed a condition of lawlessness for which state authority has proved unable to find a cure; it has shown all the faults of demagogic leadership and ignorant acceptance of wrong teaching, which animate the worst of our anarchists; it has shown how easily our apparently law-abiding communities may be thrown into disorder; but most of all it has given us an illustration of some of the possibilities of rural pooling and some of the developments that may be expected of it.

This Kentucky lesson is one every American should take to heart as something which will aid him to understand a situation with which we will all have to deal. The American farmer may be slow in coming to an idea; but when he grasps it he clings to it with determination. The

American Society of Equity, which is his present means of pooling and combining his crops, may go the way of all other pools and combines among farmers; but it is a step in advance of all the others and the forerunner of stronger pools in which the crop-growers will year after year demand definite prices for their crops, unless some solution of their troubles be found by government.

The situation in Kentucky requires, for understanding, a little knowledge of the general conditions which surround the tobacco growers. There are in Kentucky and Tennessee four principal tobacco-growing districts, each of which has by virtue of its soil, climate and experience, a virtual monopoly of one sort of tobacco. The greater part of central Kentucky, with its chief market at Louisville, and embracing about forty counties around Lexington, is given over to raising white Burley, a grade of tobacco of which the best leaves are used for plug, because of their ability to absorb licorice. The broken leaves and lugs go into cigarette and smoking tobacco. West of the Burley district lies the Green river district, with a loose-leaf market at Owensboro. This region grows a heavier, dark tobacco, which is air-cured and which largely goes abroad to the German market. West and south of this lies the Henderson Stemming district, where is grown a somewhat similar dark tobacco, which is smoke-cured until it tastes of the hardwood smoke, and is then stemmed for the English market, to avoid the heavy duty at English ports. South of the Henderson district, embracing all the Kentucky counties from Princeton to the Tennessee line, with a chief market at Hopkinsville, and in Tennessee all the region down to Paris and extending for several counties east and west, with a chief market at Clarksville, is the "black patch" or dark-fired tobacco district. There is grown a fine quality of dark, heavy leaf, which is cured by firing in barns, the fire being hot and free from smoke. This tobacco is almost exclusively grown for the export trade, and is bought by the so-called "Regie" or royal monopolies.

¹Since this article was written Mr. Mathews has been again in the South and writes the editor as follows:

"The situation now has reached a terrible climax. There is a state of fear over Kentucky—that fear which comes from a suspension of trust in law and order. It is very impressive. Down in Hopkinsville, however, they are beginning to recover from their fear and are indicting the offenders."

Tobacco-growing is a tedious business, perhaps the most difficult of any type of farming practiced in this country. It requires first the "burning" of a plant bed by heavy wood fires to kill all weeds and grass seeds in it; then, about the first week in March, this bed is sowed with tobacco seed, and the young plants are tended until about the first or second week in May or sometimes later, when they are set out in the field, 5,000 to the acre. They are then tended almost continuously, until ripening time. Worms are the worst pests, but the cultivation is unceasing. At certain stages every plant must be "topped" and the leaves thinned out to concentrate the growth in the remaining leaves. When the crop is ready each stalk is split and cut and hung by the split over a stick, with other stalks. When full each stick is carried to the barn and hung on rafters, and there the crop is air-cured or fired as the case may be. Some brands are first sun-dried to produce a certain color.

When it is thoroughly fired and ready this tobacco is heaped upon wagons and carried to a loose leaf market and sold; or it is delivered to a prizing house, "prized," or pressed, into hogsheads, and sent away to the Louisville breaks or other hogshead market. The "breaks" are so-called because there the hogsheads are broken for sampling.

The incessant labor at the tobacco crop renders it impossible for one man to cultivate more than three, or at most four acres. A large family, working wife and children, can cultivate about ten acres. To do this requires the services of all nearly all the time. In the black patch there are many small farmers who own their own land and who raise their own tobacco for their "money" crop. In the Burley district, and to a considerable extent elsewhere the land is owned in large estates, many of them the fine old Blue Grass farms which are famous in our history. For about thirty years, and especially during the past twenty, this region has been more and more steadily invaded by a legion of ignorant, illiterate tenant farmers, coming from no-one-knows-where, who undertake to raise tobacco on share leases. By these leases

each tenant is assigned about thirty-five or forty acres of land on which is a house and one or more tobacco barns and a stock barn or shed. These houses are of the flimsiest and cheapest type of tenement, costing but little and rarely repaired. The tenant undertakes to grow on this land ten acres of tobacco, and on the remaining acreage to pasture his stock, raise his own corn and pork, and wheat if he uses any, and his own vegetables. The landlord agrees to advance him as much money as is needed to carry on the farm and support the family during the year. At the end of the year the tenant divides the crop giving the landlord half, and selling the remainder for himself. Out of the money thus received he pays back his advances to the landlord, or as much of them as his receipts will cover. It is easy to understand that a lifetime of such labor frequently leaves the tenant poorer than he began; and as children are considered an asset, and the tenant aspires to secure one such wageless worker each year, the increasing years make the problem of support more difficult, the burden of ignorance heavier and the acreage of tobacco larger.

Burley tobacco when raised under these unscientific conditions—for no improvement is ever made in method—costs about seven cents a pound. It ought to fetch a "round" price of ten cents, and twelve is not extortionate. A "round" price is an average price for a crop, the best bright leaves running as high as twenty-six cents a pound, the poorest trash and lugs as low as a cent a pound. The price fluctuates from year to year because of certain natural causes. Among these are unfavorable weather, rain when the crop is ripening which destroys much of its value, and bad spring weather which injures the young plants. A good price any year rapidly increases the area of production, and too large a crop next year forces prices very low. The condition of the money market and its effect upon the financial ability of the independent middlemen also affects the price. Thus in a period of twenty years, dating back before the days of the American Tobacco Company, Burley has sold as low as two or three cents a pound on

one or two memorable occasions. It has, however, maintained a much better average, being generally from eight to ten cents round. Growers who put brains into their work produced the larger amount of fine leaf and so secured the better round prices.

In the Burley district almost the only buyer is the American Tobacco Company, the independent manufacturers using little of the good grades. The so-called "trust" has for many years been in a position to dominate the market and has been able to manipulate prices which it has done in a way to keep them uniformly low. An average round price has been about eight cents a pound, sometimes going below that. It is extremely difficult to get fair figures of this. I take this average from the books of a large warehousing company.

The yield of Burley per acre varies with the age of the land, the season and the ability of the tenant farmer. An average yield is 1,200 pounds per acre. If this fetches a round price of eight cents and if the tenant is growing ten acres, which is a large amount for one family, he will have a cash return of \$960. Of this one-half goes to the landlord, leaving the tenant \$480. From this he pays his advances to the landlord which usually amount to \$400 or \$500, leaving the tenant and his family alive at the end of the year with a chance of beginning new advances on next year's crop. Meanwhile he has grown his corn and pork which are the chief elements of his livelihood. His cash share represents the work of perhaps two adults and three or four minors for one year.

While the tenant and his family are giving their lives in this round-the-year struggle, how about the landlord? Is not half a pretty high rent? Let us see. If he receives \$480 from his ten acres he must first subtract from that repairs interest and insurance on the barns and the buildings of the tenant. If the investment in these fourteen acres is two thousand dollars, the interest will be \$120, or probably \$140, insurance and repairs will easily add \$80, leaving him \$260. He has advanced \$400 to his tenant, on which

there is interest to be paid, amounting to \$12, and he has the expense, in some cases, of marketing his share of the crop. He is left then with about \$240—and this is a liberal estimate—as rental, not of the ten acres in tobacco, but of the forty acres which the tenant occupies; he receives then \$6 an acre. As a matter of fact this is an extremely liberal figure. Yet contrast it with another estimate given me by a member of the Kentucky legislature. This gentleman contended that he worked a very large area for which he paid rent at \$35 an acre a year. This was "new" land. Then he employed tenants who grew ten acres each, and for whom he engaged cheaper lands for their living. Each of his tenants produced, he declared, close to 1,800 and some 2,200 pounds per acre, a fabulous average, for which his share was, of course, about \$900 a tenant, or \$90 an acre, leaving him \$55 clear above the landlord's rent. He engaged two or three acres elsewhere at cheap rent for every good tobacco acre, paying yearly about \$4 an acre, and he claimed that all his other expenses came within \$15 an acre, so that merely standing as middleman he enormously enriched his landlord, gave his tenants good money, and he drew down each year for his trouble something more than \$25 an acre for his tobacco land. It is safe to say there are few such instances in the tobacco regions.

In the dark tobacco district the prices are less than in the Burley. Sometimes as low as three cents a pound is paid. But the average price runs around seven cents. On three or four cents a pound, of course, everybody goes into debt. On seven cents they break even.

Some years ago by a combination of circumstances the Regie buyers of dark tobacco, agents for the foreign government concessions, began to go direct to the farmer instead of buying in the open market. Through the Italian consul at New York and a Mr. Dunnington of Virginia, the dark district was subdivided and only a single buyer placed in each division. Thereby competition was eliminated. The reasons which brought this about were several; nesting, or dishonest prizing was one of the strongest.

The independent speculators were making most of the profits and charging the foreign governments large prices. The whole trade was demoralized. By going to the farmers the Regie buyers could secure loose leaf, which they prefer, and get it prized to suit themselves. Unfortunately having removed competition they resorted to the worst element of monopoly and offered ridiculous prices. Three cents a pound was a common offer and, if not taken left the farmer with his crop unsold.

It seems to me, after a careful study of the situation, which offered an easy solution, that two courses were open to the farmers. They could still ship to the city market where there was competition. If they had refused to sell on the farm and consigned to the open market they could have had better prices. This, however, they may have been prevented from doing by lack of capital.

The second method would have been to go to the legislature, where they were very strong, and have had an open tobacco market under state control established, in which the quality of the tobacco and the prizing of the hogsheads could be guaranteed, and requiring all tobacco to be handled through such an agency. As many state markets as were needed could have been established and the Regie and other buyers would there have met the middlemen and the buyers for Bremen markets and have regulated the price by competition. I believe that is still the solution.

When the exposure of the sins of monopoly and over capitalization became a common thing the tobacco growers began to take notice of the tobacco trust. A grower of Burley who had sold his crop at seven cents a pound was told it went into Star plug. He stopped and bought some Star plug and had to pay sixty cents a pound. Where was the difference? In profits on the water in the trust stocks. There is no doubt about that answer. He had guessed right. The Burley growers began to shout against the trust and the dark growers, taking their cue from that, also denounced it, though in their case it was probably not at fault. Under the leader-

ship of Joel and Charles Fort and Felix Ewing of Adams, Tennessee, they organized a tight little corporation of their own, and summoning the growers asked them to pledge to them the handling of their crop, promising to hold it for a good price. They did not absolutely make a pool of it. They held each man's crop by itself and sold it for its price; they established figures for each grade and sold exactly according to them. The movement spread like wildfire. First five thousand and then ten thousand pledged themselves to sell through the new corporation. They did not belong to the so-called "association" but they allied themselves with it. At once dark tobacco went up. But there is nothing to prove that they forced it up except their own assertion. Many men outside had secured better prices in off years than the associations secured; and tobacco was on the rise everywhere. But, at any rate, it began to go up. To add to the effectiveness of the association some of its members or allies organized a "terror" arm for the purpose of frightening those who stood outside. In this they followed the lead of the labor union, and in fact this is a typical union organization. This slugging took the form of night-riding. Bands of marauders set out under cover of darkness and scraped plantbeds, burned barns of tobacco and otherwise injured those of "scabs" who were outside the new trust. Not able by this means to control them they took to whipping men, shooting up houses, and finally to attacking even large cities, shooting up the streets and burning all warehouses which contained independent tobacco.

The result was commercial chaos. Whatever good the association had done was offset a hundred fold by the deterioration of the region. That part of Kentucky and Tennessee went backward fifty years in respect for law and order; property lost more than half its value, as it must when it is not protected by the machinery of the law. Capital sought other fields, stores closed; banks found their business gone. Only one class was at all benefitted and that was the tobacco landlord himself. The association this year is holding dark tobacco at a round

price approaching twelve cents and is selling it well at that. More than half the crop now passes through the association prizing houses. It is forcing foreign buyers to take prized tobacco instead of leaf. Whether it is paying the farmer more than he would otherwise get is a debatable question. But the region in which dark tobacco is grown has never been so badly off as it is now with tobacco high. The present aim of the association is to form a trust contract, a deal between brother trusts, by which it will sell all its holdings at an agreed price each year to the Regie buyers. Such an agreement if successful might hold many growers for a time; but in the end good prices would stimulate overgrowth, and as the reign of violence must some day end, outside growers would soon have the market flooded again.

Stimulated by the results in the dark district the Burley growers organized under the Society of Equity, obtained a state law permitting pooling of crops, and began to pool their Burley. They had a real opponent in the trust and one well worth their fighting, for there is no doubt that if the trust holds plug at present prices the grower ought to have thirty cents a pound for his leaf. By eternal solicitation they secured a large membership, and in the course of two years have secured more than half the crop. Instead of night-riding they attracted their growers by offers of financial support, and if not interfered with by the late panic would have advanced $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound on all of two years' crop. They have advanced several million dollars as it is, and with half of two years' crops held off the market has seen the price soar to twelve, thirteen and fourteen cents. They are holding for fifteen, and will sell to the trust only at this round price, though outsiders get low grades cheaper. The trust has now

offered to meet that price for a million pounds, a little more than one-half of one per cent of the whole pool crops; but it does not seem possible to market it all without utterly destroying prices.

It is not my purpose here to discuss the inevitable lawlessness with which this pooling of crops is attended. That is a feature which cannot be separated from any agitation of the sort. The interesting thing is the attempt to solve the farmers' troubles by pooling; and in this it has been demonstrated that even by taking advantage of special and unconstitutional legislation, a pool of this size cannot be held together. Members are continually being tempted to sell out just under the pool price, to get ahead of their fellows. More than that a majority cannot often be obtained without the fear of violence; and a majority being obtained cannot be held because there is always enough acreage available to allow outside growers to extend their crops. Only if there were a fixed number of acres, and these controlled, could a pool eventually succeed.

The fight in Kentucky must soon begin all over again. The high price of Burley and dark leaves will stimulate abnormal crops, prices will be smashed in consequence, and the growers will then have to seek a new relief. And they will have to find that relief in state laws limiting acreage, or in laws establishing open markets, or in the final destruction of the overcapitalized trust and the establishment of independent and competitive buying and manufacturing. A movement to substitute other crops for tobacco, for diversified farming, for the education of the tenant children, and for doing away with the idea that there must be one "money" crop on which everything must depend, will do more for the glory of the American Society of Equity and the prosperity of Kentucky than a score of years of pooling.

Educational Relief Through Pensions and Budgets¹

Frederic Almy

Secretary of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society

The Buffalo Charity Organization Society is passing through a stage of transition and in developing a policy of adequate relief, is becoming a relief society. As is well known, the London Charity Organisation Society has been from the beginning an out and out relief society, while the American societies have usually had a provision in their constitutions prohibiting direct relief except in emergency. The American societies have chosen to act as the servant of the relief societies, and, in theory at least, have procured aid instead of giving it. As a matter of fact, most of these societies now give quite freely from their own funds in order to better control the relief of families in their care.

In the younger cities where the charity organization society came early into the field, there is often no general relief society of any strength. This is the situation in Buffalo where it has often been a case not so much of the overlapping of charity as of stretching it so as to cover the city's nakedness.

It became necessary for the Buffalo Charity Organization Society either to form a relief society or to be one. After much thought, and observation of the harmless and platonic relation of New York Charity Organization Society and the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, of the more intimate wedlock in Baltimore and Washington between the Charity Organization Society and the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and of the more or less satisfactory relations between charity organization and relief societies in Chicago, Boston and elsewhere, it seemed best for the Buffalo Charity Organization Society to become a relief society instead of forming a new society which would either be a dummy or not subject to its control. This position seems to have

the general approval of experts nationally.

The change of attitude among charity organization societies in regard to relief is marked and general. Only a few years ago at the National Conferences of Charities, the heads of large relief societies participated in a shame-faced manner as if they were not quite respectable. To-day, adequate relief, always a cardinal principle of organized charity, is getting due recognition. Of course, it needs all the safeguards now so well understood. As Joseph Lee puts it: "Modern charity gives more in material support than the old, and it is entitled to do so by its knowledge of where material support can help. But it places its accent not upon the material but upon the spiritual side."

The Buffalo society is developing its relief primarily on the example of Philadelphia, in interesting individual givers in special families. Under a thoroughly competent field secretary, Mr. Wallace, it is doing this with great success and many who formerly gave five dollars to ten dollars a year to the society's treasury, now give in addition, and with pleasure, five dollars to ten dollars a month to a special family. Monthly reports of the condition of the family are sent to each giver. A fund of pre-collected relief is also being developed for emergency relief, or for unattractive families which will not appeal to givers. This is analogous to the institutions for unattractive children not easily placed in foster homes.

These pensions, as they are called, are of course never established until all natural resources, such as relatives, neighbors, former employers, churches, lodges, etc., have been exploited.

With the purpose of making the relief educational both to the givers and to the recipients, the following rules are in use, though it is understood that all rules are made to be broken on occasion.

¹From remarks delivered at the Twenty-fifth Anniversary of New York Charity Organization Society

1. A weekly record is received of the school attendance of all children in pensioned families, and the parent understands clearly that if the attendance is irregular the pension is jeopardized.

It is not profitable to spend money freely to bring up children who run the streets or fail to receive the daily lessons of regularity and order which the school requires. For some years the Buffalo society received from both the public and parochial schools a weekly record of all children in its families, but the clerical work proved excessive and the record is now asked for only in selected families. Among these, pensioned families are always included.

2. In pensioned families all children are examined by volunteer physicians for physical defects of sight, hearing or breathing, and an operation follows if necessary.

It is familiar that such defects, which are very prevalent, are more successfully operated upon in childhood, and if neglected they cause disabilities which seriously impair earning power. It is not wise to spend large amounts in pensions in order to rear defective children who are curable. The society offers such inspection and operation as a privilege to all families in its care, and requires it where possible as in the case of pensioned families. The society through volunteer physicians has also examined for defects all the children in the truant school and 1000 children in the public schools as a demonstration to the Common Council of the need of making such examinations official and general.

3. If tuberculosis has existed in a pensioned family, all the apparently well members of the family are examined for incipient tuberculosis by the tuberculosis agent of the society, Dr. Eckel, or by expert volunteer physicians. Incipient tuberculosis is easily cured but not easily recognized either by the individual concerned or by any but the most competent specialists.

It is not profitable to pension children who are likely to develop advanced tuberculosis when they reach the earning age. The society endeavors to examine all the members of families in its care

where there has been tuberculosis and is now opening a free tuberculosis dispensary. In this it will have the active co-operation of the District Nursing and Diet Kitchen Association, and of a corps of laymen of Trinity Church (Episcopal), who will undertake especially questions of relief and of tuberculous "classes."

The Buffalo society has not yet risen to the Philadelphia rule of "no visitor, no pension," but it makes a very special effort to provide good volunteer visitors for pensioned families. Such a visitor can often tell in advance whether a widow, for instance, is in danger of breaking down through overwork, and turning a widowed family into a family of orphans.

The society even goes into psychology, and endeavors to estimate the cash value of widows as mothers. If a woman is a good home-maker it is often worth while to set her to mothering, through a competent pension, which will keep her every day at home; while, if she is slatternly and ignorant, it may not be worth while to buy so much of her time for her family. It has been well said that it is both unwise and cruel to compel a widow to neglect her children in order to support them, but this depends to some extent on the widow.

Nothing yet mentioned is so difficult or perhaps so important as the effort to estimate a budget for each pensioned family. Hitherto the district committees have considered the income of the family through earnings, city aid, lodgers, unions, etc., and have then used their best discretion to figure out the suitable amount for a pension. This amount varies widely with different families of similar resources. It differs so much that it has little educational value for the members of the committees. Under a new rule, district committees are asked in every case to figure out a budget for the family to be aided, and this budget is to be what it should cost the family to live decently for a week. The budget is to be stated clearly on the case record, and also the income of the family from what the members earn or should earn and from all other

sources. This estimate of budget and income is then presented to the committee on appeals, and the relief given should be such that the budget will always be maintained,—in other words, the relief plus the income should always equal the budget. As the possible income of the family varies the relief will vary, but the budget should not change.

This new method opens the way to dangers and difficulties in plenty but it is at least rational as well as educational.

It is no easy thing for any one, however wise, to estimate a budget, and race standards of living so vary that if a Polish family were given an American pension it would probably put half of it in the savings bank. The budget will be made to conform to the actual standard of the family rather than to an ideal standard, for it is understood that the standard of living cannot be raised merely by relief.

The Industrial Viewpoint

Conducted by Graham Taylor

LABOR DECISIONS BY COURTS

Three court decisions affecting labor have recently come into prominence and have created much discussion among trade unionists and others interested in industrial affairs. They are: *Adair vs. the United States*, the question whether an employer can be forbidden by law to discharge a man solely because he is a member of a labor union; the *Buck Stove and Range Company vs. the American Federation of Labor*, asking an injunction because of a boycott conducted by alleged illegal methods; *Dietrich Loewe vs. the United Hatters of America*, charging that the "unfair" or "we don't patronize" lists of labor organizations are such acts of combinations in restraint of trade as are forbidden by the Sherman anti-trust law.

The points involved in these decisions have been clearly set forth by Allen T. Burns, whose presentation gains especial interest because it comes from neither an employer nor an employee; but from one representing the great third party to all labor disputes, the public. His careful analysis is more significant because it was given before the Woman's Trade Union League of Illinois, and because the subject was suggested by the president of the Chicago Federation of Labor who desired that the topic be considered from an educational rather than a controversial point of view. The purpose was that trade

unionists might become better informed as to what these decisions involve before shaping their course in the situation which they have precipitated. Thorough knowledge should precede any possible protest which may be framed at a labor mass meeting soon to be held, and at which President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor will be present.

LEGALITY OF DISCHARGE

Can a law constitutionally prohibit the discharge of an employe solely because a member of a labor union? This question was brought before the Supreme Court of the United States by an appeal of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad from the United States Circuit Court of Eastern Kentucky, which had granted damages to O. B. Coppage, admittedly discharged for this reason. The damages were granted under the Erdman Act of 1898, which forbids such discharge by carriers engaged in interstate commerce, in pursuance of the purpose to promote the peaceful settlement of industrial disputes and to prohibit the blacklist whereby employers combine to prevent the re-employment of men discharged. The Supreme Court reversed the decision which declared unconstitutional the prohibition of such discharge as an infringement of freedom of contract, and as being too remotely related to the regulation of interstate com-

merce to be under the powers of Congress. The court specifically limited its decision, however, to the validity of the particular provisions. In no way was the prohibition of blacklists among employers weakened. The declaration is for absolutely no restriction as to the reasons for which a man may be discharged. Being a non-unionist is made an equally legitimate reason for discharge as being a unionist. This decision in no practical way changes the legal status of union labor. Men may still be discharged or they may leave their jobs on any pretext whatsoever. This corresponds to present practice. For even if discharge for being a unionist were illegal, resort could always be had to discharge without reason. The decision implies that an employer has a perfect right to discharge all non-unionists and so establish a closed shop.

THE BOYCOTT

The Buck Stove and Range Company of St. Louis in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia asked for an injunction against the American Federation of Labor *et al.* because of a boycott declared in consequence of a strike of the stove company's metal polishers who demanded a nine hour day. The court issued the injunction which forbids the promotion of the boycott by any means whatsoever. What makes the case of special interest is that one of the forbidden methods is the use of the "unfair list." The defendants pleaded that such prohibition was an assault upon constitutional rights and the freedom of the press. Of this the court said: "All this would have merit if the act of publication stood alone, unconnected with other conduct." In other words, the injunction prohibited the boycott in its entirety because prosecuted by certain illegal methods among which, however, the unfair list of itself is not included. The illegal element in the boycott was not the refusal to buy, or the effort to persuade others not to buy, the products of the stove company, but the threat to harm such customers of the company as continued to buy. That the unions had done this the court declared was proved by the evidence. Such action is illegal accord-

ing to the definition of an illegal boycott made by Mr. Taft when circuit judge and supported by numerous decisions. "A boycott is a combination of many to cause a loss to one person by coercing others, against their will, to withdraw from him their beneficial business intercourse, through threats that, unless those others do so, the many will cause serious loss to them." Consequently the illegality of the unfair list was not of itself an issue and this decision declared nothing which was not an already established principle. Some labor leaders have stated that to carry a boycott to the extent indicated is unjustifiable.

A WEAPON OF LABOR OUTLAWED

In declaring labor's unfair list illegal the Supreme Court has stripped the union of an offensive and defensive weapon in effectiveness second only to the right to strike. The case was that of Dietrich Loewe *vs.* The United Hatters of America. Damages were sought on the sole ground that the defendant had published plaintiff's name in the unfair list, and that this was action in restraint of trade, such as is prohibited by the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. Plaintiff's name had been published only in the *Journal of the Hatters* and not in the *American Federationist* as the court states. While this does not affect the decision it is regrettable that such a misstatement should mar the record of the highest court. The case came to the Supreme Court on appeal from the lower federal court which had decided that the Sherman law did not apply. The sole question was whether the hatters by such action became a "combination in restraint of trade or commerce among the several states" in the sense in which those words are used in the act. The court answers this unanimously in the affirmative, saying:

And that conclusion rests on many judgments of this court, to the effect that the act prohibits any combination whatever to secure action which essentially obstructs the free flow of commerce between the states, or restricts, in that regard, the liberty of a trader to engage in business.

The combination charged falls within the class of restraints of trade aimed at, compelling third parties and strangers involuntarily not to engage in the course of trade

except on conditions that the combination imposes.

The remainder of the decision consists of other decisions cited in support and of a recital of facts which establish the existence of the combination.

It is useless for the immediate future to discuss whether this decision is good law. The decision is established and is exceedingly damaging to labor. Already the voices of unionists and their friends are crying for relief. A conference of labor leaders and farmers issued on March 19 a protest to Congress demanding an amendment to the Sherman law which would exempt labor unions from its operation. President Roosevelt in his last message urged and dwelt at length upon the necessity of a provision which would relieve labor from this almost overwhelming disaster. It is claimed that the effort of men to secure a fair and living return for their labor should not be classed with the attempts of corporations to monopolize the necessities of life. To quote President Gompers,

We shall ask such enactment restoring the rights of unions and agricultural associations, as that the association of human beings for education and progress may never again be confounded with the sordid and material activities of trusts. We believe that the people as a whole will be with us in this effort.

LABOR'S DEFENSIVE ACTION

The rejoinder of organized labor to these decisions is voiced by a Protest to Congress and an Address to Workers. Both are issued by the executive officers of 118 national and international trade unions and representatives of the Farmers' Society of Equity, who met in Washington, March 18, for a "protest conference." Complaining to Congress against the invasion by the courts of the prerogatives of the law-making department of government, redress is asked by the amendment of the Sherman Anti-Trust law so as to exempt from its operation "organizations not for profit and without capital stock and the members of such organizations or associations" and to forbid its application to any arrangements, agreements or combinations among persons engaged in agriculture or horticulture made with a view of enhanc-

ing the price of their own agricultural or horticultural products."

To aid in this legislative defense, "labor's utmost political and industrial activity" is pledged or threatened. And to this end the Address to Workers is issued by the same representative body, calling working people everywhere to hold mass meetings, stand by their friends and oppose and defeat their enemies, whether they be candidates for president, Congress or other executive, legislative or judicial offices.

Two effects may be expected from this agitation. The political activity of organized labor, which began two years ago, is likely to be more vigorously renewed, in congressional and state elections, and it may result in the retirement of such avowed opponents of labor legislation as Representative Littlefield of Maine, whose refusal to be a candidate for re-election is generally attributed by the press to the antagonism of the labor vote. There is likely also to be an increase in the socialist vote, due to the discouragement of trade unionists. In evidence of this is the recent city election in Milwaukee, where the socialist candidate for mayor polled 20,907 votes, nearly 2,500 more than the republican candidate and only 2,107 less than the democratic mayor-elect.

FARMERS AND TRADE UNIONISTS

When the organized farmers appeared at the convention of the American Federation of Labor a year ago last November, urging co-operation between the small producers and the wage earning city consumers of farm products, the scheme undoubtedly struck the general public as one whose significance ended with its being "plausible on paper." The resolution of the federation approved an inter-change of fraternal delegates and recommended that trade unionists "demand the products of the farm, garden and orchard that bear the label of the farmers' organization, as the farmers have assured us they will do by products bearing the labels of our trade unions."

The difficulty of securing real effectiveness in this sort of label reciprocity even between well organized trade

unions, made it easy to discount the effort of the farmers with the trade unionists, although the former boasted a membership of a million. Much more was to be expected, however, if the co-operation could be crystallized more definitely. This was the point in the proposal of the farmers that a plan of direct distribution should be put into operation whereby the profits of middlemen and commission merchants might be shared between producer and consumer.

This plan has been undertaken in Chicago where for some months a store has been operated. Encouraged by the enterprise, the Chicago Equity Exchange has been launched at a meeting attended by representatives of sixty labor organizations. The present store is to serve as a central market from which a system of branch stores throughout the city will receive supplies. It is interesting to note that of the officers elected to take charge of the work, one, the treasurer, is a farmer. The president is a printer, the vice-presidents are an ironmolder and a carpenter, and the secretary is a musician. It is announced that about \$10,000 worth of stock has been subscribed. Many of the unions are making voluntary contributions to the project, although no stock is sold except to individuals.

From the organized farmers to the Maine Lobster Catchers' Union sounds like a far cry, but from the interesting account of the latter which appears in the recently issued annual report of the Maine Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics, it is apparent that these two groups of workers have much in common. Every man is independent, responsible to himself alone, and master of his own undertaking. Each possesses the product of his labor, to dispose of at such time and for such a price as seems best. Both are subject to irregular and sometimes excessively long working hours; both are at the mercy of weather conditions and both are confronted by the power of strongly organized middlemen between them and the consumer.

The same motives that impelled the organized farmers to seek the elimination of the middleman by a plan of direct distribution to the consumer, led the lobster fishermen to pit their organized strength

against the middlemen and bring him to their terms. A few cents added to the price of each lobster does not mean much to the consumer since only the well-to-do buy this article of food, but to the fisherman and his family the additional price means a great deal. The present very high prices, however, are not so much due to the efforts of fishermen as to the growing scarcity of the fish. It is interesting to observe the effect of the union upon the efforts to protect the fish.

Of the 4,348 persons engaged in the lobster catching industry in the United States the larger part are along the coast of Maine. Of these about half are organized into twenty-two local unions of the Lobster Fishermen's National Protective Association. Until recently no effort has been made to include the lobster catchers south of the boundary of Massachusetts, but now the effort is being made to extend the union not only southward but also to the Canadian provinces.

PROTECTING MAINE LOBSTERS

As the supply of lobsters gradually became less owing to the indiscriminate slaughter of the fish, the State of Maine began to interfere. A law was passed and eventually amended making it unlawful to catch any under ten and one-half inches in length. This was generally disregarded, however, and the wardens were looked upon as interfering with the natural rights of the fishermen. But soon the latter began to realize that restrictive action was necessary in order to save the industry from destruction. This led to the formation of a union, which now is most effective in enforcing the law. Each local union appoints a warden, and in one place where five locals exist, it is reported that as many as 10,000 small lobsters are returned alive to the sea each week.

There is not a little significance in this "limitation of output." No criticism is heard from the public as long as the output is limited to save this fish product from utter annihilation, but when the health of the worker is at stake in other industries, there seems to be little sympathy with any limitation than that which the capacity of a skilled "pace-maker" demonstrates.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

IMPORTANT

TUBERCULOSIS LEGISLATION

The New York Legislature, in the closing days of its session, passed a bill "defining the powers and duties of local health officers and boards of health in the matter of the protection of the people of the state of New York from the disease known as tuberculosis." This bill was framed by the State Charities Aid Association, after a study of the statutes of other states, and of the sanitary codes of several large cities. It includes in substance, and in many cases in identical language, some of the important provisions in the bill recently enacted by the National Congress for the District of Columbia, some of the provisions of the New York city sanitary code, several provisions of the Wisconsin law, and a very considerable proportion of the Maryland law, enacted several years ago, as the result of the work of the Maryland State Tuberculosis Commission. In some important respects, the New York bill provides a more comprehensive system of oversight than that of any other one state. Its approval by the governor, which we confidently expect, in view of his marked interest in this subject, will place the state of New York in the front rank, in so far as its statutory provisions in relation to the prevention of tuberculosis are concerned. Among the provisions of the bill are the following:

Tuberculosis is declared to be an infectious and communicable disease, dangerous to the public health. It is made the duty of every physician to report to the local health authorities all persons known by him to have tuberculosis. A similar duty is imposed upon the chief officers of hospitals, dispensaries and similar

institutions. Local health authorities are required to provide for the free examination of sputum, upon the request of any physician. The register of persons having tuberculosis is protected from publicity. Premises vacated by the death or removal therefrom of a person having tuberculosis must be reported to the local health authorities and must not be occupied until properly disinfected. Health officers must visit such apartments or premises, and determine the manner in which they shall be disinfected, cleansed or renovated. Disinfection must be done by the health authorities at public expense. Cleansing and renovation shall be done by the owner, at his expense, in accordance with the instructions of the health authorities. In case such orders are not complied with, the health officer may post a suitable placard, preventing the reoccupation of the premises. The health authorities may, upon the complaint of any person, after an investigation thereof, serve notice upon any person having tuberculosis who disposes of his sputum in such a manner as to cause offense or danger to others, requiring him to dispose of his sputum in such a manner as to remove all reasonable cause of offense or danger. The violation of such an order is a misdemeanor. Health officers must send to physicians reporting cases of tuberculosis a printed statement and report, approved by the state commissioner of health, enumerating such procedures and precautions as are necessary to be taken on the premises of a tuberculosis patient for the protection of other persons occupying the same premises. Physicians may either carry into effect such procedures and precautions, for which they shall receive the fee of \$1, or, if unwilling or unable to take such steps, shall so certify to the health authorities and the duty shall thereupon devolve upon the health authorities, who for the performance thereof shall receive a similar sum. Health authorities shall also send to physicians a printed requisition, enumerating the supplies and materials kept on hand by them for the prevention of the spread of tuberculosis, and shall so far as possible fill the requisitions of physicians for such materials, including circulars of information concerning the treatment of the disease and the precautions to be taken to

prevent its spread to others. A penalty of not to exceed \$100 is imposed for false reports. For other violations of the act, a penalty of not less than five nor more than fifty dollars is imposed. Upon the recovery of a patient, this fact must be reported by the attending physician, and the name shall thereupon be removed from the register. The act does not apply to the city of New York, but many of its provisions are already embodied in the sanitary code of that city.

There was also passed, during the closing hours of the session, the bill framed by the State Health Department, requiring physicians to give notice to local health officers of all cases of infectious and contagious or communicable diseases, required by the State Department of Health to be reported by the local health officers to it. Other minor changes in the statutory provisions relating to infectious diseases are contained in the bill.

DR. LEE K. FRANKEL'S RETIREMENT

This week marks an important change in the history of the United Hebrew Charities of the city of New York. Dr. Lee K. Frankel who has been manager for nine years, leaves that post to conduct a study of workingmen's insurance with particular reference to industrial and fraternal insurance for the Russell Sage Foundation. About a month ago the Board of Trustees of the United Hebrew Charities gave a luncheon at Delmonico's in his honor and presented him with a library of 250 volumes of sociological and economic topics; the United Hebrew Charities' staff gave a reception for him on Saturday evening, April 25 and presented him with a watch as a token of its esteem; the Federation of Sisterhoods and the directors of the downtown branch also presented him with parting gifts.

On Monday evening, April 27, a banquet was tendered him by over 300 residents of the East Side. Joseph Barondess was chairman of the committee and among the speakers of the evening were: Nathan Bijur, Dr. David Blaustein, Joseph Barondess, Abraham Schomer, Dr. Ludwig Bernstein, Rev. H. Masliansky, M. D. Waldman and Dr. Frankel. Elya-

kum Zunser read an original poem in Yiddish in honor of the occasion.

Dr. Frankel's work in Jewish communal institutions was characterized by the stress which he has laid on constructive work. No movement that tended to progress and the up-building of the newer basis for philanthropic endeavor was without Dr. Frankel's effort. In his own work at the charities he made many changes, all leading to a simplification of method and increase of the efficiency that would lead to a better understanding of the larger sides of the problem of relief giving. While he severs his connection with the specific work of the United Hebrew Charities, he will remain a force in that part of the community which needs his broad outlook. Dr. Frankel will undoubtedly still continue to serve the Jewish and other interests which he has so long represented and his new work will leave him opportunity for the development of phases of communal endeavor in which he has the deepest and most significant interest.

PITTSBURGH TO STUDY TYPHOID

For twenty-five years typhoid fever has been endemic in the Pittsburgh district. For the six years during which the United States government has estimated death rates annually for the registration area, Pittsburgh and Allegheny have run a neck to neck race for preeminence in typhoid death rate. During the past year the two cities have been combined, but before the close of this, the first year of the greater city, the huge filtration plant which Pittsburgh has been building at Aspinwall on the Allegheny river, will be in operation. There is inspiration in the fact—in the very amplex of the great low lying basins which reach from the river to the hills; and in the realization that the town has turned its greatest sanitary need into its greatest civic achievement.

The opening of the filtration plant is to be made the occasion for a piece of sanitary investigation, national in importance. Announcement was made in Pittsburgh last week by Mayor George

W. Guthrie of the appointment of a typhoid fever commission which is to carry on extensive investigations in the Pittsburgh district both before and after the opening of the plant. The members of the commission are: Dr. James F. Edwards, superintendent of the Pittsburgh Bureau of Health, Prof. Wm. F. Sedgwick, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Dr. E. S. Rosenau, director of the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, Washington, D. C., Dr. Samuel G. Dixon, secretary of the Pennsylvania State Board of Health, and a local man to be appointed later. Frank E. Wing, associate director of the Pittsburgh Survey, is secretary of the commission.

An advisory board of prominent local physicians will co-operate with this executive commission; the local Bureaus of Health, Filtration and Water Supply have placed laboratory facilities and the co-operation of members of their staffs at its disposal; and the Russell Sage Foundation has made an appropriation of \$10,000 to carry on the work. Such a plan for investigation was urged last fall by Dr. Edwards and Superintendent Knowles of the Bureau of Filtration, and an ordinance was before Pittsburgh Councils to carry it out; but in a year of financial stringency, accentuated by the merging of the two municipal budgets, the administration felt obliged to abandon it. The scientific opportunity presented, however, was one not likely to be duplicated in a generation, if ever. Through the offices of the Pittsburgh Survey of Charities Publication Committee, negotiations were instituted which have enlisted resources of national scope in the undertaking. Professor Sedgwick made the investigations of typhoid fever at Lowell and Lawrence some years ago which have been of such large influence in determining subsequent sanitary and municipal action in this field. He was also called to Pittsburgh in the '90's, in the early stages of the movement to clear the water supply. Dr. Rosenau is head of the Hygienic Laboratory which has been investigating typhoid in the District of Columbia since the opening of the filtration plant there — perhaps the most

searching study which has been made in this country of a sanitary problem. While the Washington typhoid rate has been reduced, it is still high, and the proportion of unexplained cases leaves typhoid fever one of the great unsolved health problems of the day, and one which in misery and loss probably exceeds, because of its prevalence, the more spectacular ravages of plague and yellow fever. Dr. Rosenau's active part in the Pittsburgh work will insure common understanding and exchange of methods and information between these two large investigations. In some respects the steel districts afford the richest laboratory for the study of typhoid in the world. This is not alone because of the great number of cases, and the length of time through which the urban area has been seeded with the germs of the disease. The opening of the filtration plant will make it possible to study conditions both before and after filtered water is supplied; and to study adjoining districts which have filtered and unfiltered water. The water supply of mills, milk, the prevalence of open privy vaults and contagion in overcrowded tenement and lodging houses, also offer distinctive fields for study. From a practical standpoint, looking at the matter from the Pittsburgh end, the investigation should supply information which will enable the city to eradicate the accentuating causes of typhoid at the same time that the filtration plant is opened and in the months immediately following. There is special appropriateness in the appointment of the commission at the hands of Mayor Guthrie, as he was one of the first to champion the typhoid movement in Pittsburgh.

APPROPRIATION FOR HAVERSTRAW STATE COLONY

Friends of the feeble-minded and epileptic, and especially those who have joined us in urging upon the members of the New York Legislature the necessity for an adequate acreage and water supply at the site for the new State Colony near Haverstraw, will be glad to learn that both the Assembly and Senate have passed the bill providing for an appropriation of

\$188,575, the full amount recommended by the commission, to purchase a tract of 1,267 acres (instead of 500 acres as originally planned), and also an adjoining source of gravity water supply.

The bill now awaits the signature of Governor Hughes, and we trust that he will recognize the urgency of the need and give his approval.

Before adoption of the bill, the following section was added, defining the scope of the new institution:

§ 2. The Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum shall be for the custodial care of epileptics of unsound mind, exclusive of insane epileptics, and for the custodial care of other feeble-minded persons, including such as are in state charitable institutions or are supported at public expense and require custodial care.

THE MARYLAND CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES

A large meeting of the women's clubs of Maryland and the fact that the National Conference of Charities and Correction was to meet in Richmond the following week, detracted from the usual interest of the Maryland State Conference held last week in Baltimore. The meetings developed into valuable, practical discussions, however, one of the most important results of which, perhaps, was the appointment of a committee to wait upon Governor Crothers and point out the necessity of an efficient, trained secretary to take charge of the Board of State Aid and Charities of Maryland. According to Hugh F. Fox of Plainfield, N. J., who spoke on The Possibilities of a State Board of Charities, and Hastings H. Hart of Chicago, the law providing for the present board is adequate providing that an expert secretary has charge of the work. Mr. Fox said that he felt in coming to Baltimore, a city which has turned out so many efficient workers, that he would be bearing coals to Newcastle, but a perusal of the latest report of the Board of State Aid and Charities showed rank inefficiency in the particular field with which he dealt. This statement was borne out by Professor Jacob H. Hollander, the president of the conference, who presided at this session. Governor Crothers has just appointed an en-

tirely new board, but the office of secretary is still vacant and the conference was enthusiastic in the expression of a hope that the right man might be named for this important position. The conference appointed a committee a year ago which made some suggestions for a change in the board, but the bill which was framed with this end in view was held up in a senate committee of the legislature.

The session on defectives, held on Thursday afternoon under the chairmanship of Dr. Edward N. Brush, superintendent of Sheppard and Enoch Pratt Hospital in Towson, was given over to a discussion of the necessity for state care of the insane and mentally defective. The "clank of mediaevalism" in our county jails and city lock-ups was heard again in the evening when Dr. Hastings H. Hart of Chicago told of some of his experiences when visiting those institutions "in which a decent farmer would not stable a cow." Dr. Hart had just come from the Baltimore county jail, where he found that the women's and men's corridors were only separated by a grated iron door, and that no proper provisions were made for the segregation of prisoners. Dr. Hart bore out the statement of the chairman of the session, De Courcy W. Thom, that the remedy for the evil conditions in county jails is segregation,—that solitary confinement is better than the companionship of degenerates and that for the new offender, at least, it is absolutely essential that a separate cell be provided.

Miss Mary Vida Clark, assistant secretary of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, explained the success of inspection in institution management in New York state where the aid association gives volunteer co-operation to the State Board of Charities.

At the Friday afternoon session Dr. Guy Steele of Cambridge drew a strong picture of the county almshouse as he most frequently finds it—a place for sheltering the sick, the incurable, the indigent and the insane, whose physical welfare is in the hands of a neighboring practitioner who receives a minimum yearly fee and gives the minimum of care. No wonder, the speaker said, sick men and

women have a horror of the almshouse. The county government is notoriously parsimonious, and invariably considers not what ought to be done, but what can be done most cheaply. The almshouse inmates should be classified and many taken away. Those who are sick but not incurable, should have quite different care, and the incurable, particularly the tuberculous, should be separated from the others and made comfortable for the little remnant of life left them.

Dr. Charles P. Emerson, resident physician of Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, described the social service department of a hospital as one "that provides the ways and means by which our patients can carry out our doctors' orders." It studies not the patient's disease but his home, wife, children, the cupboard, the coal bin, the milk can, the sewer. The function of a hospital is not only to diagnose a patient's troubles but to help those troubles, and there is no agreement that the help shall be only by the use of drugs. Dr. Emerson made it plain that nurses are needed not only in the hospital, but to follow the patient into his home; that doctors must not stop with a prescription of good milk for sick babies, but watch over dairies; that to the advice, "Don't worry," they must add a means of removing the cause of worry. Many cases were used as illustrations. If one dyspeptic's trouble needs only a bitter tonic, that will suffice, but the next one will not be free of his malady until his wife has been put through a course of sprouts in a cooking school, and a third has the same distress of digestion due solely to the waywardness of a son,—and here it is the son who must be treated. In other cases it is a wet cellar, a faulty sewer, a dirty house that is responsible for the illness. The social service department, too, is an important factor in the education of the medical student who, through it, adds to a knowledge of a poor man's body, an understanding of his family, his house and his food, so that he is able to diagnose his social disease.

The final session on Friday evening was a joint meeting with the State Federation of Women's Clubs. It was in

charge of Miss Lucy F. Friday. In speaking of the work at the New York State Reformatory for Women at Bedford, N. Y., the superintendent, Dr. Margaret Halleck, emphasized the need for active co-operation between institutions, judges and probation officers. The judge should have an exact knowledge of the work done, of its aims and methods. In the same way, Dr. Halleck said, the probation officers should become acquainted with the institution, or go still farther and visit it personally.

Dr. Halleck's description of the outdoor work of the girls, gardening, seeding, laying cement walks, brought forth more of the fresh air cure for waywardness in addresses by Mrs. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent of the Philadelphia House of Refuge, and Mrs. H. Ingram, superintendent of the department of relief of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. Mrs. Falconer told of the particular gains made in the moving of her girls out to an old farmhouse, roomy and sunny, where later the whole institution will move into new quarters on the cottage plan. A few went first, then more, in the face of the gravest doubts of the board of directors, and finally the homelike farmhouse was kept open all winter to the everlasting benefit of nervous, high strung girls.

Officers for next year's conference follow: President, Dr. J. H. Mason Knox; secretary, H. Wirt Steele; assistant secretaries, Nathaniel Grasty, Miss Elizabeth Brown, Dr. Marshall Langdon Price.

TO PROMOTE SCIENTIFIC EXPERIMENT

Congressman McKinley, of Illinois, has introduced a bill "to promote scientific investigation or experiment respecting the principles and applications of the mechanical arts and the science of engineering," which, if it should receive favorable consideration, might have considerable influence as a sanitary measure. It would operate under the act of 1862 donating public lands to such states and territories as provide colleges for the benefit of agricultural and mechanical arts, and would establish engineering experiment stations under the direction

of these colleges. Among the subjects enumerated for appropriate research are the provision of suitable water supply for domestic and manufacturing purposes, the disposition of industrial, household and city wastes, and the engineering problems connected with public utilities. The bill provides for an appropriation of \$30,000, annually to each state and territory, and the publication of bulletins at each station once in three months, these to be transmitted in the mails free of charge.

As stated, the provisions of the bill are largely of the sort which would render the stations of use to local industries. Their possibilities as agents for improving the public health are argued as follows, by L. S. Randolph, an engineer of Blacksburg, Va.:

Such a station would furnish the means and observers for a careful sanitary survey of each of our states and would be a bureau to which all sanitary problems could be readily referred by our municipalities and from which reliable data and information could be disseminated to the public at large.

NEW JERSEY'S

TENEMENT IMPROVEMENT

Interesting reading is furnished by the report of the New Jersey Board of Tenement House Supervision for 1907.¹

During the year considerably over a thousand new tenement houses have been built throughout the state. The board reports that by far the greater number of those who have filed plans have been anxious to obey the law, but a few have shown a marked disposition to the contrary. One instance cited is that of a firm of speculative builders who erected a tenement house according to plans approved by the board, with an open space extending through from the street to the yard to light the windows on the side of the building. After securing a certificate that the building was erected according to law and that it might be occupied as a tenement, the owners proceeded to sell one-half of this open space at the side to the owner of the adjoining lot, leaving a

width entirely insufficient to supply light and air. The board notified them that under these conditions the building could not be maintained as a tenement house. The owners then made strenuous efforts to repurchase the narrow strip they had just sold, but received the punishment they deserved, for the adjoining owner in full knowledge of the necessity for the purchase, fixed his own price, and the experiment in trying to get the better of the law will probably prove a costly one.

A commonly attempted evasion of the requirements for new buildings is reported in constructing houses on plans for two families each and later renting them out to more than this number. Two-family buildings do not come under the tenement house law, which in New Jersey as in most other states applies only to houses for three or more families, and are subject to almost no regulations as to proper lighting and ventilation of the rooms and precautions against fire. The law says that if a building not erected for use as a tenement house is converted to this use, it must be made to conform to the requirements for new tenement buildings. But in some cases after notification the owners have neither complied with the law nor ceased to rent the houses as tenements. The board reports vigorous action to prosecute these owners and to secure vacation of buildings which are wilfully maintained in violation of legal requirements.

The general type of new tenement houses in New Jersey is shown to be the three-story frame building, over half of the tenement houses erected during the year being of this class. This means that the majority are being built outside the fire limits of cities and with accommodations for not more than six families, the only conditions under which new wooden tenement buildings are allowed. The next largest class are the three-story brick houses. In respect of size the new tenements in New Jersey are thus very similar to those going up in Brooklyn and Queens boroughs in New York, where the three-story, two-family-on-a-floor houses are also the predominant type. Not a single six-story sky-scraper tenement plan is recorded in New Jersey

¹ Fourth report of the Board of Tenement House Supervisors of New Jersey. Copies may be obtained from the offices of the board, 164 Market Street, Newark, N. J.

during the year, and only fifty five-story houses. The large Manhattan buildings are not being copied across the river.

The work of the board is by no means confined to supervising the construction of new buildings. The New Jersey tenement house law also requires improvements in the old houses and the proper maintenance of all tenement houses new and old. The board reports that it has caused the installation of over six hundred sanitary closets in houses, to replace old yard vaults. Filthy cellars have been cleaned, water within the buildings has been supplied, fire protection has been provided and many other legally required improvements have been made under orders of the board, as shown by their report. In all seven thousand four hundred and thirty-four violations on old tenement houses are said to have been removed during the year.

The board concludes by asking additional workers, both in the clerical and inspecting departments. When its work was first begun the number of existing tenement houses was estimated as more than forty-five thousand. Yet somewhat over fourteen thousand old buildings are all which the limited force has thus far been able to inspect and report on in detail.

The Congestion Exhibit in Brooklyn

Benjamin C. Marsh

Realizing that the conditions depicted in the Exhibit of Congestion of Population in New York held in the American Museum of Natural History would tend to develop in Brooklyn unless prevented, a group of energetic and foreseeing citizens brought the exhibit to Brooklyn, where it was held from April 1 to 19. Many aspects of the congesting sections of Brooklyn were also presented, having been prepared by groups of social workers who could readily put in graphic form the facts with which their daily life brought them into intimate touch. They showed clearly that the East Side problem of Manhattan is becoming the West Side problem of Brooklyn, and is even

gradually spreading itself throughout other parts of Brooklyn.

Although the exhibits were arranged in the four classes under which they were subsumed in the American Museum of Natural History, viz.: Suggested Causes of Congestion and Concentration of Population, Conditions of Congestion of Population, Alleviation of Congestion of Population and Prevention of Congestion of Population, the whole presentation rang with the earnest of immediate betterment and possible prevention.

Perhaps the most striking exhibits of bad housing conditions were those furnished by the Tenement House Department and the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. They showed the housing conditions which in their horror of darkness, insanitary conditions, broken sinks, filthy toilets and black halls, evidence the recent existence of conditions fully as bad as those which have long been the bane of lower Manhattan. They clearly emphasize Brooklyn's conviction that a two or three story tenement may be unsanitary as well as a six story tenement.

The Neighborhood Workers Association of Brooklyn portrayed the small dark yards and the forbidding forlorn and dilapidated home surroundings in their neighborhoods by photographs selected from many sections of the city.

The Brooklyn High School Teachers' Association prepared a most impressive and graphic arraignment of the High School situation, stating their problem: "Where are new high schools needed," and by a series of maps showed the location of pupils who pay two dollars and one dollar a month for carfare. About \$100,000 a year it is computed is spent in carfare by parents for Brooklyn High School children who spend about 1,000,000 hours a year in street cars.

The Federation of Churches has already made a canvass of Brooklyn and presented the interesting information that there was a block according to the census of 1905 with a density of 447.5 per acre and that another had a density of 358.5. The Sixteenth ward had an average density per acre of 249 in 1905 and in nearly all the river front wards canvassed by the Federation of Churches, over-

crowding was found varying from 1.6 per cent of the total number of families to 18.3 per cent.

The comparative density of workers in factories was portrayed by diagrams showing that whereas below Fourteenth street there was in 1906 a density of about 119 workers to the acre, Brooklyn with its wide expanse of nearly 50,000 acres had only about 2.5 workers to the acre.

The relation of administration of government to congestion of population was illustrated forcibly by the exhibit of the Bureau of Municipal Research. Statements of the functions of various departments showed the point at which city government touches problems of congestion of population. The bureau took a strong stand in the placard: "It is the city's duty to provide decent living conditions for its citizens; the city cannot do this without proper business methods." "No department of government," another placard announced, "can do the most effective work unless properly organized; divided responsibility is irresponsibility and proper records are necessary to locate responsibility."

A series of public meetings was held in connection with the exhibit in Historical Hall, Pierrepont and Clinton streets, during the two weeks the exhibit was in session, and the papers of Brooklyn without exception gave large space to reports of the meetings. Various phases were presented, condition of children in congested sections, industrial conditions, health, transportation and town planning.

Monday evening, April 6, the opening night, Frederic B. Pratt, chairman of the committee presided, and Borough President Coler and Comptroller Metz spoke on the same platform. Mr. Coler emphasized the value of the study of conditions of congestion and the duty of the community to provide proper industrial training and practical education for the children in the public schools. Comptroller Metz discussed from his point of view the relation of charity to practical city life. Mrs. Vladimir G. Simkhovitch, chairman of the general committee, explained the reasons for the organization of the committee and the work which they

had done. Alfred T. White, the pioneer of good housing in Brooklyn, presented in succinct form the situation in Brooklyn. He said:

Could proper housing be had with proper regulation and education, at least 10,000 lives a year could be saved in this city, the death rate in Brooklyn being eighteen per thousand as against 18.5 per thousand in Manhattan. There never has been a fairer opportunity for wise city planning to reap a speedy harvest of rich results than Brooklyn affords today.

On Neighborhood Workers' day, in two sessions, the functions of the social settlement was discussed by Lillian D. Wald, the relation of the settlements to schools by Elizabeth S. Williams, and the relation of the church to the settlement by Gaylord S. White, while Judge Willis Brown of Salt Lake City analyzed the ownership of the child, who seems to belong partly to the parent and partly to the state.

Mornay Williams discussed the relation between juvenile delinquency and congestion and Judge Robert J. Wilkin spoke of his experience in the Juvenile Courts of Brooklyn.

At a later session, Dr. John Cronin emphasized the physical condition of children ninety per cent of whom, he claimed, do not get the full benefit of their school advantages, because of the overcrowded, congested condition of life which exaggerates their physical defects. Physical examination of school children shows that about eighty-five per cent have defects sufficient to predispose them to contagious diseases.

Dr. William H. Maxwell, superintendent of city schools, stated that Brooklyn has improved, inasmuch as in years past some of the classes numbered as high as 150 pupils but there were during February in Brooklyn about 38,000 part time pupils. Industry and industrial conditions were discussed by a group of speakers on various occasions, among them Mary Van Kleeck, Dr. Edward B. Shallow, Mrs. Frederic Nathan and Professor Charles Zueblin. Henry C. Wright called special attention to the economic necessity for the removal of factories to Brooklyn. Lawson Purdy spoke on the relation of taxation to distribution of

population and claimed that there is need of law requiring people to report the selling price of their property when it is transferred.

Commissioner Edward M. Bassett, speaking on Transportation and Congestion, declared that what all Brooklyn needs more than anything else is quick and comfortable transit to lower Manhattan, and he claimed that the inability or unwillingness on the part of the people to realize the limitation of the East river constitutes their whole trouble, and is seen in demands for remedies that are not adequate to the merits of the case. Subways and other rapid transit lines should be built where and as fast as they will show a proper earning, but the most immediate need of the people, he said, is more tracks across the East river to lower Manhattan.

In the discussion on town planning and the relation of government to congestion of population, by Edward T. Hartman, secretary of the Massachusetts Civic League, and Henry Bruere, director of the Bureau of Municipal Research, fitting emphasis was laid on the vital relation between the activities of government and the improvement of living conditions of the community. Mr. Hartman dwelt on the topic from the point of view of preventive action on the part of the government without touching in any large measure the administrative problem; he cited the methods abroad of planning cities and deplored the method of kneading and re-kneading the population of a given congested area into newer and ever changing shapes, which will not accomplish anything. A part of the population of every congested district, Mr. Hartman thought, must literally be dug up by its roots and transplanted into areas developed in such a way as to make slums impossible. A general purchase of land by the city government seems to be dictated as an essential part of the policy of town planning if the example of German cities may be taken as a criterion.

Mr. Bruere cited the two distinct lines of action open to government with re-

spect to the congestion problem: First, to find out what constitutes the problems and causes of congestion; second, the prevention and alleviation of congestion. He then said:

The information upon which the exhibits of the congestion of population are largely based is available to the agencies of government established to collate information with respect to all community activities. In the department of finance there is maintained a Bureau of Municipal Investigation and Statistics spending upwards of \$70,000 a year, to which all information to be found in public records respecting such conditions is available. Other governmental departments have similar masses of information. These governmental agencies of information cannot, however, be harnessed to the problem of congestion unless departmental records are so devised and so kept that they will tell the facts as they exist with respect to community needs and community activity supported to satisfy these needs. To train governmental officials to look the kind of facts that are presented in this exhibition full in the face and to plan their efforts with respect to those facts which are also made available to the public in the form of a permanent exhibit, will be a service of incalculable value. Housing improvement in the city itself proceeds a thousandfold faster through efficient enforcement of housing laws than through the substitution, by means of private enterprise, of model tenements for death barracks.

Visitors to this exhibit are sadly impressed with the reproduction of a dark tenement sleeping room. As a community we long ago accepted definite plans to abolish these breeders of disease. For six years we have supported a tenement house department to carry these plans into effect. How many of us know what the tenement house department has accomplished in this direction? The ability of the tenement house department to deal with the problem depends largely on its financial support. In the face of these conditions the tenement house department is the only department of the city government whose budget for 1908 was less than for the previous year. No more effective effort can be made in the war against congestion evils than to definitize the purposes of public expenditure and to govern its activity by the simple principles of order and common business sense.

Dr. Leslie Willis Sprague spoke on the city built for man, and demanded from a humanitarian point of view a planning of cities so they should be fit for human use.

Modification of the New York Insanity Law

Mary Vida Clark

An admirable bill affecting the insane has been passed by the New York Legislature and is now in the hands of the governor. This bill accomplishes two purposes, the extension of the period of parole of patients discharged on parole, and providing for the admission at state hospitals of patients who voluntarily seek treatment.

At present it is the general custom to discharge patients recovered or improved on thirty days' parole, that being the limit of time allowed by the law, except that under rules established by the commission, the period may be extended at the end of the first thirty days, if the patient requests an extension and if the commission approves. It frequently happens, however, that the patients most in need of the extension of parole do not request it. At any time during the parole period a patient can be returned to the hospital without legal commitment. Of course, it is very desirable that a patient discharged recovered or improved should have full opportunity to test his ability to adapt himself to the freer environment of life outside the hospital. Thirty days is generally an adequate period in which to determine whether the trend of the case is towards continued improvement or towards relapse. The State Charities Aid Association, through its after-care committees, which concern themselves largely with the assistance of such paroled patients, is strongly of the opinion that an extension of the period of parole is desirable. The bill in question extends the period from thirty days to six months,

under rules to be established by the State Commission in Lunacy, which will doubtless safeguard the system.

Provision for the voluntary admission to State Hospitals of patients aware of their condition and desiring treatment is generally considered desirable by those interested in mental and nervous diseases. For some time in Massachusetts it has been possible for a person who felt himself in need of such treatment as the State Hospitals provide, to be received and cared for under a voluntary law. Such a system greatly facilitates the early treatment of acute and curable cases of insanity, and wherever tried has met with success. The bill passed by the New York Legislature follows the Massachusetts law in providing that a patient who is received in this way should give reasonable notice of an intention to leave, so that if his condition should be such as to make his freedom unsafe to himself or others, steps might be taken for his legal commitment. In the state of New York, the private licensed asylums for the insane have for many years had the right to receive voluntary patients, and there seems to be no good reason for refusing this benefit to persons who wish to apply for admission to State Hospitals.

A striking instance of the need of such a provision of law, occurred this year when a clergyman in one of the larger cities, feeling himself on the verge of a mental breakdown, applied to a State Hospital for admission, and was told that he would have to be legally committed before he could be received. He wandered away, and some months later his body was recovered from the river. This life would undoubtedly have been saved had there been a provision in the insanity law of the state of New York for the admission of voluntary patients.

The Plight of St. Louis

Jacob A. Riis

Next year it will be a century since the "Town of St. Louis" was incorporated by the Court of Common Pleas, a straggling community of some 1,200 souls on the bank of the Mississippi where forty-six years before (1763) Pierre Laclede Liguette and a small company from New Orleans had established a trading post, with the prophecy that "this settlement will become one of the finest cities in America." It had all the chances, the splendid river first and last, had its builders been willing to take them. But the very first step they took was to so assign to settlers their lots that the river-front became the back yard instead of the front yard of the village. "Even at this early date," say the projectors of the recent city plan, "St. Louis began to turn its back on that natural feature of the landscape which might have been utilized to enhance the beauty of the future city." That beauty had use in town building was a discovery to come later,—much later. Those men were traders and trade was their one purpose,—also the town's. It is the history of American cities. As in other lands cities grew sometimes for government, for defence, for worship, so here they grew for trade. They were marts, and they served their purpose.

But as in all other relations of life, if you leave out the aesthetic, to dwell wholly on the bread and butter, the growth is lopsided. The thing limps. And some day it is discovered that the bread and butter were involved after all; if not mine, then the neighbor's. There comes a time when the neighbor's business becomes our immediate concern; the brotherhood of man is after all not a phrase, but a fact. Such a time has just come to St. Louis. Brackenridge, in his *Views of Louisiana*, wrote, in the early part of the last century of the tract upon which that city stands, that it was a "charming country. It is neither very level nor hilly, but an agreeable, waving surface, . . . covered with

shrubby oak intermixed with hazel and a few thrifty thickets of thorn, crab-apple and plum trees." The slum rears its head in that "charming country" to-day. Hear the report of the housing committee of the Civic League, just made. It deals with that district between Seventh and Fourteenth streets, Lucas avenue and O'Fallon street, comprising forty-eight blocks, where the poor live in neglected rear tenements, sometimes two, and in one case three, upon the lot beside the front house:

The lower rooms of these houses might, for all the sunlight they receive, be at the bottom of a well . . . Dilapidation, misery and dirt reach their depths in the rear buildings. The people who live in them are poorer, more sickly, less cleanly and generally of lower standard in every way than those who live in the front.

I should have no difficulty in matching that statement, word for word, from my own city, within my own time. It took us in New York rather more than a hundred years to get to where we could see it, and see what it must mean to all of us if we let it be; but the point is not how long it took, but that we did see it at last. St. Louis sees it now. I attended a great dinner of its Civic League a month ago, at which that report was presented, and unless I greatly mistake the temper of its people, the fight with the slum is on there. The same week I sat at a table around which were gathered the representatives of organized effort for betterment in St. Louis. I doubt if New York often sees so many gathered together at a noonday meeting for an exchange of views and experiences. They meet twice a month at a restaurant handy to their work. Their chairman is Roger Baldwin, settlement worker, chief probation officer and what not. St. Louis made no mistake when she got him out there, fresh from Harvard, for the spirit of his uncle is hot within him, and he bids fair to do for the city on the Mississippi what William H. Baldwin, railroad president, good citizen and lover of his fellow man,

did for New York in his all too brief life.

The task that is before St. Louis is not a mean one, for the policy of *laissez faire* has ruled in the past, and politics has engrossed the attention of the newspapers. The ominous disclosures of the housing committee made relatively less stir in their columns than the suggestion casually thrown out during the dinner, that we in New York would like to see Theodore Roosevelt in the city hall dealing with the powers of darkness in municipal government. But the newspapers, like the rest of Missouri, only have to be shown to fall into line, and a public opinion is gathering behind the Civic League that is bound to compel sharp attention, in and out of the legislature, to this matter of housing the city's toilers.

The slum in St. Louis does not rear itself in many storied tenements as it does in New York. It hugs the soil closer, seldom rising over two, or at most three stories. The typical house is the old one-family dwelling which has been made over into a tenement in its decrepit old age and now houses three or four times the people it was built to shelter. That was the way our slum grew in New York. The old houses are still the worst, being wholly unfit for the purpose to which they have been put, and those from which imminent danger always threatens, for no winter passes without an attempt in the legislature to withdraw them from under the tenement house law. There is a bill there now to that effect. Eternal vigilance is still the price of liberty. In St. Louis there are yards and, at first glimpse, air and sunlight in plenty; and back alleys between the streets, intended for the decent removal of refuse, I suppose; but landlord greed has packed the yards with frame tenements, of the kind to which "no repairs are ever made;" the alleys have become streets where the people and the largest rats I ever saw burrow together in the filth, overflowing into dark cellar and basement rooms of which, the committee declares, from forty to sixty per cent would be declared nuisances under any health law. Nearly half of the six

hundred and odd yards inspected were drained wholly by surface drainage. Over half of the yards were marked "dirty," "very dirty," or "filthy." Here is a picture:

Life would be easier for the people crowded together in these closely packed yards and alleys, if they could get rid of the rubbish and refuse. The methods of getting rid of them begin half with yard fights, especially, of course, among the women, and the whole yard combines in fighting the "garbage gentleman." And what to put the garbage in? Buckets, baskets, pans, piano boxes, bureau drawers, wash-tubs, hat boxes, trunks, baby carriages, anything of any material, size and shape. Of course everything leaks, and what of the contents does not fall out is dragged out and fought over by stray dogs and fierce cats and the immense rats that come out of the sewers.

"They eat the cats," adds the report. I don't doubt it. As a matter of fact I saw very few cats there.

That in 280 rear buildings, housing 2,479 persons, only one bath tub was found—that in the house of a landlord—is hardly surprising. We could do worse in New York, and did in the old days. Out of 13,233 persons, the report shows that 96.26 per cent had no chance to bathe. The hydrant in the yard was the only water supply. If in winter it is frozen, so what are the people to do? "The children's clothes have all been sewed on for the winter, and a washing of the visible parts is all the school authorities require." I suppose there are people who, reading this, will turn up their noses at "the great unwashed," and dismiss the matter with the verdict that they won't keep clean. The same kind marched alongside all the while we were trying to establish public bath houses in New York, sneering that we "would see," when they were built. But when the first one was opened in one of the most closely peopled districts on the East Side, and I went over and found a string of waiting men extending clean around the corner into the next block and the attendant policeman within the house wild with anger at the importunities of "the mob" that had come to wash, I didn't notice those critics around to "see." If the

tribe be represented in St. Louis, they may perhaps find in the very battles of the alley women with the garbage cart drivers a suggestion that they are more than anxious to "come up to their opportunities," if given a chance and a Colonel Waring to "put a man instead of a voter behind every broom" and on the seat of every cart.

Things enough are suggested by the housing committee's report to set a town less wide awake than St. Louis to thinking. Poking about among the alleys I saw piles of banana stalks, bakers' tools and supplies, and other things that spoke of home work. And this was what the report said under that head:

The most immediately deadly thing connected with the home industries in St. Louis is the dirt that is poured, baked and frozen into the food-stuffs manufactured in the dwelling houses. It is difficult to imagine the dirt in which the wholesale and retail milk, butter and ice cream businesses are carried on. The milk is kept in damp cellars, the floors muddy from spilled milk and the water dripping from the iceboxes. These boxes are never aired—seldom drained, and are unbelievably unclean. Milk can be bought, late in the day, sometimes at three cents a quart. This does not sour either,—in the regular way—by next morning. It seems somehow to rot, if that is possible. The bakeries in the cellars and alley houses are beyond description.

Mostly, says the report, when an old woman lives in such a cellar or basement, she takes in washing, and asks pertinently, "Yours?" The question ought to sink in. I remember when I argued the case against Washington's slum before a joint committee of the two houses of Congress, that one smooth shaven senator was quite indifferent even to the unheard of contagious disease record in Willow Tree alley till I said that clothes lines full of towels hung across the alley. They were from the senate barbershop, which had its washing done there. At that my senator sat up straight and wiped his chin thoughtfully, and after that he took an interest.

"In a rear house on Thirteenth street four men were found making tamales. The room in which they were working was black with age and accumulated dirt,

and the floor was covered with bits of tamale meat and other garbage. Perspiring and unclean, two of them chewing tobacco, another with some kind of disease, the men were wrapping the tamales in corn-husks which looked—"

After this to find a family of three in O'Fallon street sharing their two rooms with two women and twelve men lodgers, and two rooms in another street housing sixteen sleepers by night is not surprising, to me at all events, for I heard of such things in Los Angeles where, of all places, I did not expect it; and then, St. Louis has no law definitely regulating tenement house crowding, it appears. Nor does the comment upon the death of one of three who cooked, slept and lived in a shed six feet by five and seven feet high, that he was "apparently smothered to death," come home to a New Yorker with much of a shock. It does not take a long memory to recall the baby death that was registered in the Health Department "plainly due to suffocation in the foul air of an unventilated apartment," even if the whole fight with the slum lies between that day and ours. But these things help one to understand what the Civic League meant when it pleaded for a "civic center" at Tenth and Carr streets,

the worst slum district in St. Louis, with its poorly lighted and unpaved streets, sanitation filthy beyond description, housing regulations left to the tender mercies of the rapacious landlord, plumbing rarely if ever, inspected, the ravages of tuberculosis unchecked, crime punished but not prevented, and absolutely no provision made for public recreation. In this district there live—(I am quoting from the City Plan now)—if indeed it can be called living—some 21,762 people.

And let it be added, for the sober thought of the city which still has in it, with its thousands upon thousands of happy, prosperous homes, the making of "one of the finest cities in America," that only by making the fight with such conditions a civic duty, a veritable war upon inhuman evils that mock all human freedom, does a city escape the blight of corruption and mismanagement. The slum has its perfect revenge. It's civic death rate is worse than its baby mor-

tality. And neither stays at home. The plague that was bred in the Biddle street alley may crave its next victim in Portland place; the selfish avarice that denied a human chance to the brother in the slum sees the treasury looted and a city exploited for personal profit unmoved.

The people of St. Louis,—for so I identify the real backing of the Civic League, ask many things to make their city what its founder dreamed it would one day be. They ask first, and justly, for laws which shall set a barrier against the slum and enable them to fight their battle to win. They ask from the state legislature these powers: To close houses unfit to live in; to limit the space a tenement may occupy on the lot to sixty-five per cent of it; to abolish cesspools and interior dark rooms, one as bad as the other; to exact 600 cubic feet of air space for each sleeper in a tenement; to compel the lighting of dark hallways; to prohibit bakeries, butcher shops, sweat shops, etc., from stables and tenements. This is all elementary sanitation and it is not to be doubted that every demand will be granted, now that the city no longer is "suffering from a lack of definite information as to its living conditions," or the state either. What is set forth in the housing committee's report is sufficiently definite on every point, and certainly the Civic League has shown cause why St. Louis should bestir itself with all speed. And here upon my table, just brought in by the postman, lies the evidence that it is about to bestir itself, in the shape of the St. Louis Tenement House Association's prospectus. "Tenement House Association" has not the sweetest of sounds, but there are two points about this one

that take the sting out: the first that it advertises its proposed work as "investment philanthropy," and backs up the statement with the declaration that dividends to its stockholders shall never exceed two per cent, all the rest of its earnings being set aside for the extension of its work, which is good and quite compatible with low rents and all improvements in St. Louis as elsewhere. For in its essence the whole tenement house question resolves itself into one of what you will take. If five per cent, there is no tenement house question, and the slum is beaten; if twenty-five, then both loom large.

The second point in favor of the Tenement House Association is that Dr. William Taussig, who is truly the embodiment of all good citizenship and civic virtue in his city, as he has been these many years, is its president. His eighty odd years sit lightly upon him because they have been filled with good works. When last summer he was in New York and insisted upon seeing the City and Suburban Homes Company's houses, it was I, not he whom the many stairs tired out. And here now I have word from him that the association, which proposes to invest \$300,000 in its initial venture at giving the wage workers "at low rents, clean, healthy rooms and a high standard of living accommodations," has recently reorganized its board and resolved to go ahead energetically as soon as the financial conditions improve. So, upon the solid basis of an awakened civic conscience and of a rescued home, the city of Pierre Laclede Liguette can move on hopefully toward the proud destiny he prophesied for it.

The Trend of Things

A Century of Catholic Charity is the title of an article by Thomas M. Mulry, president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, which appeared in *The Catholic News* of April 25.

After discussing the work of the church at the opening of the century, of which there are but meager accounts, Mr. Mulry reaches the establishment of the St. Vincent de Paul Society. He says:

"The first conference in New York was affiliated to Paris in 1846. It was the Conference of St. Patrick (the old cathedral parish) and with its formation came a new field for Catholic zeal and charity. Up to that period the clergy and the religious had been doing the lion's share of the work. This new movement brought the laymen into line. How quickly they responded to the task ahead of them, the history of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul will tell. . . .

"The great tide of emigration, especially from Ireland, which came to these shores, the sad conditions of those who found themselves friendless and penniless and the inducements held out to them by proselytizing agencies, were sources of deep sorrow and anxiety to the Catholic citizens of this diocese. . . .

"The history of those times, dark though it be, is, however, one in which we may take pride. Priest and layman vied with each other in hastening to the rescue, in assisting those poor strangers to become self-dependent and self-sustaining. Through the efforts of those men we find organizations like the Catholic Protectory, and the Mission of the Immaculate Virgin established. Through their efforts likewise the Little Sisters of the Poor were introduced into this country.

"In those days Randall's Island was the headquarters for the poor children of the city. Up to 1867, and shortly thereafter, this institution was under state control and governed by a board of charities and corrections, the members of which were appointed by the governor of the state. A committee of St. Vincent de Paul men visited the island regularly every Sunday and organized catechism classes for the Catholic children. . . .

"There were giants in those days and it is no wonder that Catholic charities made such splendid progress, for surely success must reward such sacrifices and such untiring labor as were expended by those noble men. With our innumerable institutions caring for every form of human suffering, our day nurseries, boys' clubs, and asylums of every description directed and looked after most carefully, the second century of the history of the diocese opens under most favorable auspices."

Of the spirit of co-operation, the basis on which modern philanthropy rests, Mr. Mulry says:

"There are two great factors which go to help wonderfully in the success of our efforts in the field of charity. About twenty-five years ago some earnest men, deploring the religious bigotry and opposition which prevented good people coming together, and appreciating how detrimental such a spirit was to the proper progress of charitable work, formed an association known to-day as the Charity Organization Society. At first its advances were met rather coldly by Catholic people, but knowledge of the high character of the men at the head of the organization forced us to study its rules and to investigate its policy. To-day, the Catholic people form a large part of the organization and have been convinced that the spirit of co-operation, of good feeling and of toleration, existing among charitable societies of all denominations owes its inception and development to the broad-minded men who originated the idea of the Charity Organization Society. To-day in place of a division of opinion or of action on any important question of common interests, a united front is presented and a moral force exerted which cannot be overcome.

"Another great factor in the success of future efforts lies in the fact that we are living under a generous municipal government. No city in the world gives so generously as does the city of New York. Every form of distress or want receives substantial aid. This relieves private charities from a great responsibility but it should not paralyze our efforts. On the contrary it gives us the opportunity to devote our time and our means to crying needs which appeal to us and which will ever exist no matter how much we labor.

* * *

The first report of the New York Association for the Blind is a revelation to the citizen who is accustomed to regard his blind brethren as hopelessly cut off from the active occupations of their fellow men. Light through work is the motto of the association and a mere glance at the illustrations of the report proves what an illuminating force work has been.

We ordinarily picture the blind as groping their way through life with timid, uncertain footsteps. But as children they make hundred yard dashes, and standing broad jumps, put the shot, swim merrily in pools, ride on merry-go-rounds, play ring, in short disport themselves as happy boys and girls do who have their sight. In later life they cane chairs, run sewing machines, operate switchboards, typewrite, give massage and, astonishing as it may seem, shave customers as carefully as the most accomplished barber can who has his eyes to guide him. And this ability to live as others do they gain through work which lights their darkened path to happiness and independence.

The report tells us that nearly two-thirds of the blind in this state lost their sight after school age.

One of the most interesting parts of the report is that devoted to infants. When the reader learns that a large proportion of blindness is unnecessary and the result of ignorant treatment at birth, the plea for a campaign of education similar to that now being waged against tuberculosis, seems to rest on a basis of humanity and common sense. That prevention is cheaper than alleviation or cure is a fact that hardly requires demonstration. A great deal of money is spent on examining and treating the eyes of school children who might have had perfect sight if those who cared for them at birth had known how to recognize incipient blindness and to apply preventive remedies.

The association's method of educating its protégés to the self-supporting point is full of interest. Equally instructive are the chapters on the various types used in the books designed for finger reading. Finally there is a Great Human Document by Helen Keller who personifies the possibilities that lie before those whose lives are dark and who must open by human effort the doors to progress that Providence left closed.

* * *

John Burns has lost none of his pluck or emphasis in his utterance as a cabinet minister. After the defeat of government candidates in the Peckham and other local elections, he returned to the defence of the drastic licensing bill after this unmistakable fashion:

"Recent events prove that this trade is determined on a raid on the people's interests the like of which has never been contemplated before. The trade is organized. The Peckham election has proved that the bung is on the bounce. It has methods in its madness. It does not want London to be a

great civic center. The publicans do not like tramways; they carry people past the public houses. They do not like the comfortable housing of the people: it counteracts their own attractions. What the trade really does like and want and believe in is the warehousing of women and children, with the workhouse in ultimate view for public house victims.

* * *

No more graphic account of the temporary arrest of the pace in our industrial progress has been made than by Slason Thompson, manager of the Bureau of Railway News, in a comparative statement of railway statistics made to the Chicago General Managers' Association. While a year ago a shortage of 104,226 freight cars was reported, 343,217 idle cars are now said to be in the yards. What this means to labor is shown in the fact that there were 1,675,000 employees on the railway payrolls on June 30, receiving wages amounting to \$1,075,000,000. During the last nineteen years Mr. Thompson claims that the increase of the compensation of employees has more than kept pace with the remarkable expansion of railway revenues, due to an increase of 296.9 per cent in ton miles of freight carriage.

* * *

A campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis in China is heralded by the permission which Dr. S. A. Knopf has granted for the translation of his prize essay into Chinese. The translation will be done by Dr. George A. Stewart of Nanking University and the essay will shortly be issued in large numbers. Dr. Stewart, who is a medical missionary, was struck by the practical value of the essay. He introduced it to China first through a review in a native medical journal. He writes that the Chinese suffer severely from tuberculosis and know practically nothing about hygienic methods of combating it.

Communications

BOLTON HALL ANSWERED AGAIN

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit me once more to encroach upon your valuable space, in reply to Mr. Bolton Hall's communication, No Pity for Landlords, in the issue of April 18 and also commented upon in the *New York Times*.

I will gladly accept Mr. Hall's offer of 4½ per cent net interest return on my cash investment in the apartment house 785 Ely avenue, Astoria, provided he will also guarantee the return of the principal, viz.: \$11,000 (plus \$12,000 mortgage at 5½ per cent), and he may have all the increased land, house, rental or any other value. I shall visit Mr. Hall and personally make the offer to him in due form.

"*Ne sutor supra crepidam*" will be my motto and five per cent first mortgages on tenements will suit me first rate hereafter.

Yours truly,

New York.

M. G. HOPF.

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of the 18th, Mr. Bolton Hall discusses the income of landlords on tenement property. It is my belief that Mr. Hall has arrived at conclusions which are not in harmony with the true situation. His article has left an impression that his deductions are based rather upon theory than practical experience.

Let us examine Mr. Hall's statements in their consecutive order. He says: "I will be glad to visit Mr. Hopf's tenements. If

they are all that they are cracked up to be, I will guarantee Mr. Hopf his four and one-half per cent, if he will allow me to have the increased value of those tenements, or rather of the land on which they are built. But no landlord would do that."

The above proposition as made by Mr. Hall to Mr. Hopf is neither reasonable nor equitable. From my point of view, it is piratical. According to the suggestion of Mr. Hall, he would obtain all the possible future rise in the value of the property; but he does not mention the fact that he would consent to be responsible for a possible loss. This at least would be an approach to a fair bargain. Landlords are not desirous of holding tenement property on a four and one-half per cent basis. We must approach this question with a clear vision of present day financial and economic conditions.

A landlord can invest his capital in first mortgages on real estate, and can obtain five per cent. If he invests in first mortgage railroad bonds he can obtain from four to four and one-half per cent with a prospect of a future rise in value. None of these investments carry with it the necessity of personal service. They are considered eminently safe and desirable. But with the man who invests his money in tenements, it is entirely different. He not alone invests his capital, but he gives his personal service. And I can assure Mr. Hall that it is a service worthy of its hire. Is the landlord not entitled to compensation for this supervision? Does not the landlord assume a definite responsibility which makes him a valuable asset to any community? Is it possible that Mr. Hall is so deficient in practical experience that he actually believes that all a landlord has to do is to collect rent? A landlord has his active daily duties to perform just like a merchant or professional man. He must see that his property is kept in good condition from cellar to roof. This means constant supervision. Now when a man invests in railroad bonds or real estate mortgages, he assumes none of the mentioned responsibilities nor is encumbered with any of the specified duties. Therefore he is contented with a low return on his capital. It is a scientific economic fact that investment coupled with personal service will invariably demand a higher compensation than mere investment without service. It is both reasonable and equitable that it is so. Quoting again, Mr. Hall says, "The tenement house owner goes into the court of morals to show that he is making a very small profit. As a house owner he is; and if you and I ran our business through an agent, and for reasons best known to ourselves never went near the property except when we cannot help it, our business would make small profits, too."

Mr. Hall writes as if all or at least the great majority of tenement house owners employed agents to attend to their property. I am sure Mr. Hall is in error. The

majority of tenement house owners look after their own property for the economic reason that they are desirous of saving the expense of an agent. Mr. Hall evidently from his own words does employ an agent to look after his tenements. Why he does not look after them himself is a question which he alone can answer. But I do know that I personally manage my tenements and on this subject speak from practical experience and not from theory. What reasons Mr. Hall has for not desiring to go near his property I am not competent to give. I have no reason for not going near my properties; I endeavor to treat my tenants justly and as a rule they treat me justly.

Quoting once more, Mr. Hall says: "The reason that our profits as landlords do not appear as large as they really are, is because we have already paid the prior owners of the land a price based partly on future values. Until the site we have bought comes to be so much needed that we can get rent based on this expected value, the percentage of profit seems low."

Let us be specific: According to the Standard Dictionary, a profit is an excess of receipts or returns over expenditures or outlay. A man of ordinary prudence will not conclude he has actually made a profit until the return actually and not theoretically exceeds the expenditure. This is a universal rule among conservative people; it applies to every transaction of a financial nature. The theory of the "unknown future" must be reckoned with.

The gist of the matter is not that the landlord is avaricious, but that he possesses the common-sense of the average citizen. In times of great prosperity he asks and receives a legitimate increase in rent. And in times of depression he is compelled to accept a decreased rental. The question at bottom is economic. It is often a matter of supply and demand.

Quoting once more Mr. Hall says: "If it is right that we should be paid for owning the earth, let us defend it, and not try to crawl out on the plea that we are such fools as to keep unprofitable property."

The ownership of real estate for legitimate purposes of investment or development needs no defense but rather is entitled to commendation. It is our great privilege and eminent good fortune to live and thrive under a democracy. And as long as we enjoy that privilege and good fortune, it will be considered proper for the individual to own and develop property for legitimate purposes.

I am keeping very excellent company in proclaiming this doctrine. For from George Washington to Theodore Roosevelt, every one of our great citizens has defended the rights of property and the legitimate exercise of the individual initiative.

ALBERT R. KORN.

New York.

JAILS AND PENITENTIARIES

TO THE EDITOR:

The report published in your issue of March 21, about the deplorable condition of very many jails and penitentiaries throughout the country, points to the imperative necessity of proper visiting frequently, and at unexpected hours, by accredited and authorized visitors. In no other way, except one, so long as wardens are political appointments and not infrequently ignorant, or negligent of some of their urgent moral duties, will prisoners secure at times, a hearing for their just grievances, with a fair chance of being really helped. The other way, would be to permit any, and every prisoner to write directly once a month to the state prison commission and without knowledge of the prison officials, or at all events, without these letters being opened. Then the truth could be further and advantageously investigated and ultimately known.

It is a woeful, lamentable fact that at present, in many jails and penitentiaries, little is known accurately by the public of what goes on inside. When that little, which is often very unfavorable to the management, comes to light, even the best meaning person has no power, practically, to correct, or reform great evils—the least of which is graft, because the result of graft in these instances, is often, alas, cruelty to man, woman and child.

BEVERLEY ROBINSON.

New York.

THE FARM A CONGESTION CURE

TO THE EDITOR:

At the meeting of the New York Charity Organization Society on its twenty-fifth anniversary, a notable confession was made and a still more notable program promised. The confession was that twenty-five years of efficient work of that organization and its allies found New York in worse condition than it was at the beginning and that the organization has neglected the larger opportunity of preventing the congestion which increased the demand for charity and remedies. The promise was that hereafter efforts would be made to turn the tide of immigrants and urban population away from the cities into the vacant and roomy country, to the farms and villages.

Nothing so important as these announcements from so authoritative a source has emanated from any public body. Practically all of the experienced speakers concurred in this attitude. The growing hopelessness of dealing with congestion, poverty and tenement housing in the large cities forces us to the alternative of keeping the people away from the cities.

As a city grows, the crowding and the rents increase. "In 1900," said Florence Kelley, "the district in New York below Fourteenth street was the most densely

populated in the world. Yet it holds now 89,000 more people than in 1900." Many of the old tenements have been replaced with new ones under the model ordinances, but the crowding is worse than before and the rents higher. The simple and hard truth of the matter is that a city is in itself a social blunder. The charity workers may paraphrase General Sherman's verdict on war, and say, "A city is hell, and you can't refine it." Poet Morris in *News from Nowhere* wiped London out of existence, reserving only the Houses of Parliament and a few of the larger buildings as warehouses for manure and other coarse wares.

It is no easy task to stem the tide toward the cities, for there is not one, but many influences drawing people there. Mostly, it is a job, the belief that in the big city there is room for one more. The higher wages entice, forgetful of the higher cost of living. The crowd and the gaslights attract in a less degree than is supposed. Most country people tire of the noise and the crowd in a day.

The ready made jobs, the ready made housing and supplies, contrasting with the responsibility and the looking ahead of the country is by all odds the fascination that draws from farm to factory, from independence to dependence, from the roominess of the wide country to the cramped streets and tenements. The problem of damming the stream is a big one. I know none more serious and difficult and none so important.

The people who write about land hunger, the single taxers who lay the blame on the monopoly of the land, assume facts that do not exist. The great majority of country-bred people prefer the country and stay there. Some of these buy more land to invest their money or to increase their possessions, just as prosperous business and professional men do. But a general human craving for owning land to farm and live on, does not exist, it is a matter of choice of work and profit and environment. The landless man in country or city can get land if he wants it. There is no state in the Union and probably no county in which farms cannot be bought for about the value of the improvements and on the easiest terms of payment. There are farms almost anywhere to be rented on shares with or without teams and supplies from which the industrious and frugal worker can soon buy and pay for the farm and stock, very much easier than our frontier settlers ever did. The empty handed from the city can do this and get enough wage work to live on while raising their first crop. When we see the rush to locate claims at the sales of Indian reservations, the conclusion is natural that land hunger is the motive. The truth is that in nine cases out of ten, it is speculation, the hope of getting a thousand dollars' worth for two hundred dollars and somewhat also the gambling spirit, hoping to be

a winner in the crowd. I happened at Provo, Utah, when the Uintah Reservation was open for filing. There were 5,200 quarter sections, of which probably 1,000 were fit for irrigation, the remainder was mountainous and worthless. There were over 30,000 filings—a lottery gamble to draw the one prize in thirty. Oklahoma was settled, not by the landless, but by the enterprising farmer of Kansas, Missouri and Iowa, who got better land for \$1.25 an acre than his own, which he could sell for \$30.00 or \$40.00 an acre.

All over the old South there is farming land at from \$5.00 to \$15.00 an acre. Much of it is good, all of it is better than New England land, which has fed and educated the sturdiest people of the states. In many cases, the improvements are worth the price, and the farm is ready for immediate cropping. I have, myself, offered good cultivated land, fenced, with house, horse and cow, free of rent and made it fully known to city working people who knew me and my intentions, and found no takers.

Undoubtedly some town-people can be drawn to the country and in most cases they would be satisfied and stay, but it will require special management in each attempt to do it. Many peasant immigrants would doubtless be glad of the opportunity and would be easily taught.

But here arises the next and greatest difficulty, the leaders and teachers. Can we find capable agricultural settlement or charity workers who know how and are willing to make their permanent homes with these people? Here is a truly grand opportunity for heroic and interesting and invaluable service.

Another way, and perhaps more practicable is to so improve the country that farmers will not farm so badly or live so extravagantly as to lose their farms and seek a wage job in town or city. Social organization, road making, home beautifying, school improvement, co-operation associations, are needed and these would prevent the drifting and attract some from the cities and factories. Here is work worthy of the missionary, the settlement worker and the Charity Organization.

St. Louis.

N. O. NELSON.

Jottings

New Headworker for Baltimore's Daughters of Israel.—The home of the Daughters of Israel in Baltimore which maintains a boarding home for girls and a settlement house, has a new headworker. Miss Schlom, who was headworker during the greater part of this winter, has been forced through illness to retire from the work, and her place has been taken by Miss Rosa Fried of New York. Miss Fried is one of the original

class taught by Professor Thomas Davidson at the Educational Alliance. She is a graduate of Barnard College. She made a study of immigration and boarding homes for working girls in Philadelphia in the summer of 1906, and then took charge of the immigration work of the Bureau of Intermunicipal Research of which Miss Frances Kellor is the head. Miss Fried also assisted the Council of Jewish Women in their investigation into the condition of the immigrant girl.

Universal Peace Congress.—The International Peace Bureau, Berne, Switzerland, has issued a circular letter embodying the resolutions adopted by the sixteenth Universal Peace Congress, which met at Munich, in September, 1907. The substance of the resolutions follows:

"That Esperanto can be taught as an international auxiliary language in the schools; that, inasmuch as the French minister of public instruction is disposed to initiate an inter-governmental conference to consider the best means of organizing an international system of education, and since the adoption of this system would entail the elaboration of programs which would enable students to pass from the institutions of one country to those of another with suitable diplomas, the congress expresses the hope that the different governments will speedily indicate their willingness to participate in this conference, and invites the "pacifistes" (or promoters of peace everywhere) to take the necessary steps to bring this about. The congress, considering the importance of the measures taken two years since by the Italian minister of public instruction, which were also adopted by the Hungarian minister, to have all the pupils of the state schools participate in a peace festival on February 22, with a view to inspiring them with the sentiments of peace and humanity, extends its felicitations to the governments of Italy and Hungary, and wishes to bring their beneficent example to the attention of all peace societies in order that through their instrumentality their own governments may adopt similar measures."

Baron de Hirsch Institute's New Head.—Stanley Bero, newly placed in charge of the Baron De Hirsch Institute at Montreal and in addition to look after the problems arising from Jewish immigration into Canada, has been connected with sociological and reform work, Jewish and other, from boyhood on. At the age of sixteen he entered the employ of the Baron de Hirsch Fund, remaining with them for over four years. After an extended experience in journalism he resumed sociological work, this time under Dr. Walter Laidlaw, and from this position passed to the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society which, at the time, was engaged in addition to its other labors in removing small shops iden-

tified with the clothing industry, to the suburbs of New York. It was in this direction that his services were most appreciated. With the organization of the Industrial Removal Office he was transferred to the newly undertaken work and served there in various capacities. Recently he made several trips through the United States, organizing over 100 cities for purposes of Jewish distribution. He has been identified with the Social Reform Club, the East Side Civic Club, the Free Loan Society, doing in connection with all these and other movements considerable lecturing and journalistic work.

Playground Work in St. Louis.—The agitation in St. Louis to secure the use of the public school buildings for general neighborhood recreation thus far has not succeeded beyond the referring of the plan to a committee of the School Board, but with the opening of the outdoor recreation season interest in it is becoming more widespread.

The history of playground and recreation growth in St. Louis is interesting. The first public playground was established in 1900 as a result of the previous year's study by the social economic section of the Wednesday Club, of the needs of a great city. The women who are members of the club secured \$400 in voluntary subscriptions and maintained the playground in the yard and basement of a public school. The next year all the women's clubs of St. Louis took a hand through the Vacation Playground Association, and still another year under the superintendence of Mrs. de Wolf, the Civic League and the Jewish League joined them. It is noteworthy that the juvenile arrests in the playground neighborhood decreased fifty per cent that year. The Civic Improvement League began independent work through open air playgrounds and in 1906 the two organizations united to maintain eight playgrounds, two vacation schools and 500 children's gardens. That same year the volunteer workers realized that the accomplishment of their real aim was not distant when the city itself opened four playgrounds. From 1900 to 1906 the number of children in attendance grew from 325 to 326,000. The next year the association disbanded after handing its work over to the newly formed Public Recreation Commission. The commission now has eleven playgrounds, two of which are for colored children, and one large garden divided into individual plots. Besides this the 500 separate gardens are still under cultivation. In 1907 the attendance was about 475,000 children and the cost of maintenance about \$17,000.

Boarding House for Applicants for Relief.—Maintaining a boarding house for the

special purpose of affording shelter to applicants for relief, is one of the methods of the United Hebrew Charities in Scranton, Pa. The society has also a free loan department and an employment bureau. It directs its work rather to the self-support of its applicants than to relief giving, and makes its principal claim for assistance along these lines. A. B. Cohen is the president. One hundred and ninety-four persons received lodging during the last year at the boarding house. Five hundred and sixty meals were served and there were 118 applicants for positions.

Building the Fence in Louisville.—"Help Build the Fence"—the words are in letters big and little, strewn everywhere—in newspapers, on street cars, and telephone poles, all over Louisville, Ky.; and, little by little, the fence is being built. This special effort being made to help the anti-tuberculosis campaign began here a little more than a week ago. It has been conducted at a time when other urgent calls are being made, and partly because of this fact probably the response has not been as large as was hoped, but there is now contributed \$2,356.50, and more is coming. The committee to which these contributions are being sent is the citizens' anti-tuberculosis committee of the Commercial Club, Board of Trade and Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association, of which Peyton N. Clarke, vice-president of the Associated Charities, is chairman. The interest in the movement was stimulated by the anti-tuberculosis exhibit held here in January, and the fact that the contributions are in the main small, shows that many have become concerned.

Jewish Women's Settlement in Los Angeles.—It has long been the endeavor of the Jewish Women's Foreign Relief Association of Los Angeles to establish a settlement house. The society has announced that it is ready to begin this work for which it has rented a house. Mrs. Bertha Hirsch Baruch, the president of the society, has announced that a number of volunteers are ready to start the activities of the house which will include a dispensary as well as the usual teaching and club work.

A Luxurious Public Bath in Cincinnati.—A public bath which contains Russian and Turkish baths is luxuriously new. Such a building has been established by a Hebrew congregation of Cincinnati, whose organization is known as the Mound Bath House Association. The Ohio Medical Association has been invited to visit the institution, which is non-sectarian. A number of physicians are sending patients to the Russian baths for treatment.

CHARITIES

AND The Commons

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

CONFERENCE OFFICERS FOR 1909

The National Conference of Charities and Correction adjourned Wednesday night at Richmond, Va., with Ernest P. Bicknell, superintendent of the Chicago Bureau of Charities, for president, and Buffalo as the conference city of 1909. Over 600 members were registered, the number due in part to the presence of members of the National Conference of Jewish Charities, the St. Vincent de Paul Society, and the Children's Conference, all of which held sessions a few days in advance. Many of the Eastern delegates visited Hampton Institute en route and participated in the institute's twenty-fifth anniversary, coming away with a vivid impression of the work which that institution is doing toward the upbuilding of the new South. In particular, those who heard the Hampton students sing the old plantation songs in great rolling Negro choruses of several hundred voices, have something not to be forgotten.

The conference has attracted numbers of Richmond people, particularly the Sunday night meeting, when scores of men and women were denied even standing room when Jane Addams spoke in beautiful old St. Paul's church. The congestion show in charge of Benjamin C. Marsh and John Fox of New York, has been largely attended.

Southern hospitality, which many delegates have experienced as individuals, took a general form in a reception by Governor and Mrs. Swanson, and an all-

day excursion down the James river on the steamer Pocahontas.

A report in detail of the conferences will be published in a later issue. The National Conference officers for next year are as follows:

President, Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago, Ill.; first vice-president, Thomas D. Osborne, Louisville, Ky.; second vice-president, David F. Tilley, Boston, Mass.; third vice-president, Robert W. Heberd, New York; general secretary, Alexander Johnson, Indianapolis, Ind.; treasurer, Edward Boyle, Chicago, Ill.

On the executive committee are:

The officers, the ex-presidents, and George B. Davis, Richmond, Va.; James F. Jackson, Cleveland, Ohio; J. J. Kelso, Toronto, Ont.; Homer Folks, New York; Judge Julian W. Mack, Chicago, Ill.; Frank L. McVey, Minneapolis, Minn.; George B. Robinson, New York; F. H. Nibeker, Glen Mills, Pa.; George S. Wilson, Washington, D. C.

The chairmen of committees are as follows:

Reports from states, Alexander Johnson, Indianapolis, Ind.

State supervision and administration, Frank A. Fetter, Ithaca, N. Y.

Needy families, their houses and neighborhoods, Robert A. Woods, Boston, Mass.

Health and sanitation, Dr. John S. Fulton, Baltimore, Md.

Defectives, Dr. Martin W. Barr, Elwyn, Pa.

Statistics, John Koren, Boston, Mass.

Children, J. B. Montgomery, Coldwater, Mich.

Law breakers, Bishop Samuel Fallows, Chicago, Ill.

Immigrants, Miss Jane Addams, Chicago, Ill.

Press and publicity, H. Wirt Steele, Baltimore, Md.

A NEW DEPARTURE IN ASSOCIATION WORK

The Young Men's Christian Association is awake to the demands of the times, and new activities are constantly being undertaken for the betterment of young men. One of the most recent avenues opened up is that along which service is rendered to immigrants and foreign-speaking peoples settled in America. This was inaugurated by the industrial department of the international committee. This department recognizes how essential a factor the foreign-born workman is in the industries of the country. The cry of the *entrepreneurs* has been for more men, and the incoming thousands from Europe could not, previous to the present financial flurry, adequately meet the demand.

It is apparent that a "foreigner," ignorant of our language, is not the best kind of a man in the industries, but other men have not been available, and the operators have constantly argued, "we must get foreigners."

Under normal industrial conditions, immigrants from southeastern Europe form from thirty to eighty per cent of employes in many mines, quarries, steel and iron mills, furnaces, coke-ovens, cement works, etc. This shows how dependent we are upon the "foreigner" and the question is, what does Christian America owe this man? He has been wronged, often maltreated, sometimes cheated and frequently imposed upon. He deserves better treatment and the association has entered earnestly into the work of helping to improve his conditions and character.

A special secretary, Dr. Peter Roberts, has been placed in charge of this work. Dr. Roberts has studied the needs of the immigrants in the coal fields of Pennsyl-

vania. He is the author of a painstaking study of the industrial and sociological conditions of the foreign-speaking in that state and he is qualified to lead in adapting the work of the association to meet these great needs.

The association is now doing work in four of the ports of entry on the Atlantic. Its agents meet the immigrants, minister to their necessities, guide many to trustworthy boarding houses, and find employment for many others. Those who go inland are given letters and cards of introduction to association secretaries, who also aid them. It is interesting to know that the plan works. Im-

migrants aided by the secretaries have sent back letters of appreciation for services rendered and for the spirit manifested.

The leaders in this movement, however, feel that they must get hold of the immigrant before he lands in New York or Boston, Philadelphia or Quebec. He must be cultivated at the ports of embarkation. He must be told, as Robert Watchorn, commissioner of immigration in New York, puts it, "that an agent

of the Y. M. C. A. stands at the gate to welcome him." With this in view, a plan of co-operation between the international committee and the world's committee is being perfected, by which agents of the association will work in the ports of embarkation in Europe, aiding immigrants and directing them into the hands of similar agents in the ports of landing as well as in inland centers of distribution.

The association feels that the first impression made upon the immigrant is important, and its aim is to safeguard the "foreigner" from crooks and sharps, to help him find his destination, his friends or the needed employment, and thus impress upon him that he comes to a Christian and law-abiding country.

A conservative estimate will place the



PETER ROBERTS

total non-English speaking workers in the industries of America at three and a half million. The association feels it owes a duty to them. Hundreds of these wage earners are killed each year in mill and mine, because of their ignorance of the English language. To-day, scores of associations are conducting classes in English for foreign-born men and boys. Thousands of these men prematurely fill graves because of ignorance of the laws of health, conditions of living, and lack of intelligent adjustment to new industrial conditions. The association is trying to find ways for bringing light and knowledge to the foreign-speaking in these lines. Thousands of these men get into trouble for the reason that they do not know the ordinances of our cities and the laws of the land. A magistrate recently said in Youngstown: "It is the men who do not know English that get into trouble; when they learn English and know our laws they keep out of court." The association is trying to help the foreign-speaking to keep out of court, by teaching them what the laws are, why they are necessary, and the duty of all to obey them. Thousands of foreigners are voters and thousands more aspire to that honor. It is safe to say, that hundreds of these naturalized foreign-speaking men do not know what a vote means in a democracy. Many of them know that it has pecuniary value and are not able to see further than that. Their previous training and their ignorance have been used by sinister men to corrupt the ballot. When a judge in Ohio explained the election laws to a crowd of Magyars and pointed out the crime of fraudulent voting and the penalty, they were surprised, and their comments were: "We didn't think that," "We didn't think it was wrong," "We took the word of the boss that it was all right." Secretaries are giving and promoting talks among "foreigners" on naturalization, the duties of naturalized citizens, the way officers are chosen, the duties of officers when chosen, and the importance of knowledge and conscience in the electors of a democracy.

These lines of activity are followed in four ways: By the personal touch of

secretaries and teachers who bring into service a broad sympathy for their foreign-speaking brothers. By literature specially prepared to meet the requirement of the foreign-speaking in his work, in his home and as a member of society and of the government. By lectures accompanied by stereopticon views, which tell them the stories of the rise and growth of America, the men who sacrificed to achieve the results of to-day, and the hope of to-morrow. To this heritage the foreign-born come, and the association hopes to help open their eyes and their hearts to its meaning, and enlist their sympathy and interest, their devotion and co-operation, in making the civilization of North America what it ought to be. By co-operation with other agencies who are at work in bettering the condition of non-English speaking peoples in industrial centers, and especially in the cities much good will be effected.

In this work the association is not attempting to proselyte any member of any race. Proselytism is not in the program. The emphasis is placed upon the industrial, social and moral betterment of all men and of all creeds. The work is based upon Christianity, which is the breath of life of the association, and which assumes that when Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant, qualify themselves for good citizenship in the governments of North America, they will be better prepared to discharge their religious vows at the altar whereat they worship, and it is believed that the secretaries who discharge their duties to the foreign-speaking religiously, by their devotion and self-sacrifice, have exhibited a better type of Christian manhood than can be portrayed by the most eloquent oratory.

LEAGUE OF HOME AND SCHOOL ASSOCIATIONS

A league has been formed in Philadelphia with the object of bringing the home and the school into cordial co-operation and to perpetuate American ideals. It distributes pamphlets in various languages and has a bureau of expert speakers among whom are educators,

physicians and social workers. But the chief means by which it effects its object are meetings arranged to make teachers and parents acquainted, to give them a sympathetic understanding of one another's point of view and a realization that in union there is strength. The result of the intercourse has justified the hopes of its promoters. Convinced that the teachers have their children's welfare at heart, parents refrain from captious criticism, and the teachers, supported by the parents, deal more confidently with their charges with benefit to all concerned.

Meetings of the kind described are not wholly new. They have been held in Philadelphia for many years and several associations have been formed from them. These have, however, worked independently and having little influence have remained comparatively unknown. But a new movement began in November, 1906, with organization as its watchword. The New Century Club called a meeting to consider the formation of parent-teacher associations whose object would be the extension of co-operation between the home and the school. The Pennsylvania Congress of Mothers came forward to assist and from these bodies a joint committee was selected to prosecute the work. It sent out a circular to all the schools, stating the purpose of the movement and offering support and aid.

As a result, during the season of 1906-7 meetings of parents and teachers, with an aggregate attendance of 29,750, were held in the various schools and particularly in those of neighborhoods settled by foreigners. The invitations to one meeting were issued in three languages. On that occasion there were no speeches, for they would have had to be in all the tongues of the audience to be understood. Music and cordiality replaced oratory and by the time refreshments were served everything was on a footing of good-fellowship. This was the end desired. Teachers and parents realized that they were mutually interested in making the children the good citizens of the future and that they must co-operate to accomplish that result.

In October, 1907, a two days' confer-

ence took place. Joseph Lee of Boston and Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh, superintendent of schools in Philadelphia, were among the speakers. The outcome of the deliberations was the Philadelphia League of Home and School Associations with a membership of 1,068 which has since increased to 2,000. It is only necessary to take an interest in the movement and to pay twenty-five cents or more a year to be a member.

The active interest already shown in the movement by prominent Philadelphians, who have communicated with the league's president, Mrs. Edwin C. Grice, promises well for a solution of the problem of the parent and the public school.

TENEMENT IMPROVEMENT IN SAN FRANCISCO

San Francisco has fallen in line with the movement for tenement reform. The city has enacted an ordinance, in many respects very similar to the New York Tenement House Act. Some important points of difference, however, are to be noted. Smaller courts are permitted in San Francisco, which is a change in the wrong direction. In New York, on account of the enormous cost of land, the law requires courts of only the minimum sizes necessary to give a fair amount of light and air to the rooms opening on them.

But San Francisco goes considerably below the New York minimum. For example, a five story new tenement house in the former city may have an inner court on the lot line only six feet wide, whereas the New York law requires such a court to be twelve feet in width. A lot line inner court is one of which three sides are enclosed by the building itself and the fourth side is on the lot boundary and therefore liable to be shut in by an adjoining building. A court of this type, six feet wide and five stories deep, does not properly light the rooms on the lower floors. The rooms opening on these courts, moreover, are usually the bedrooms, for which abundant light and ventilation are very important as a preventive of tuberculosis and for every other hygienic reason.

The San Francisco law also fails to require any intake or tunnel at the bottom of new, enclosed courts connecting them with the street or yard to supply a constant current of fresh air. This is a most important feature of the new courts in New York. Without such a provision any court surrounded by tall buildings may become a "stagnant well of air."

On the other hand, in size of rooms San Francisco is slightly in advance of New York, where bedrooms as small as seven by ten feet are permitted in new houses.

At least one bathroom on each floor is definitely required by the ordinance, a provision not found in the New York Tenement House Act, although a very large proportion of the new tenement houses here have baths. Both the New York and San Francisco laws require each new apartment to have an individual sink and water closet, and the additional expense of installing a bath being slight, owners usually find it to their advantage to furnish it.

The ordinance further requires a public sink or slop sink for every floor. This is a convenience for the janitor or janitress in cleaning the halls of large houses, but seems unnecessary for small buildings, as each tenant has a sink within his apartment in any case.

An interesting feature of the San Francisco ordinance is the prohibition of wall paper in kitchens, pantries, water-closet compartments, bathrooms, laundries and toilet rooms and the requirement that such rooms be painted with white paint. Canvas burlap as a wall covering is also made unlawful for any tenement room. Since the definition of a tenement includes high grade apartment houses, these are sweeping measures, although unquestionably sanitary.

The presence of a resident janitor or other responsible caretaker is mandatory in San Francisco for all tenement houses occupied by more than eight families. In New York the enforcement of this requirement is left to the discretion of the Tenement House Department, as it has been found, for example, that one janitor can take care of two adjoining nine-family houses in many instances, as sat-

isfactorily as of one house accommodating twenty-two or more families, such as are very common here.

The enforcement of the new ordinance is not centered in the hands of any one department, but is divided among the Board of Public Works, the Board of Health, Chief of Police, Chief Engineer of the Fire Department and Fire Marshal. Such a division has had most unsatisfactory results in other cities. Where the supervision of tenement houses has been made everybody's business it has in the end proved to be no one's business. Many features of the law, however, are excellent. If properly enforced it will insure the city against the most serious of the evils which have been the curse of New York as the result of past years of neglect. It prohibits such conditions as unlighted and unventilated interior rooms, dark halls and school sinks and provides increased fire protection and improved sanitation. It is a distinct forward step, but is not all that is needed to secure good housing.

NEW JUVENILE COURT.

BALTIMORE

Judge Hensler of the Juvenile Court of Baltimore has been elevated to the supreme bench of Maryland, and Jacob N. Moses has been appointed by Governor Crothers in his place. The appointment is particularly pleasing to the social workers of Baltimore. Representatives of the various charitable societies and a committee of five representative citizens of Baltimore talked with Governor Crothers on the importance of putting the right man in the right place.

Mr. Moses was born in Baltimore, in 1873; was graduated from Johns Hopkins University in 1893 and from the law department of the University of Maryland in 1895. In 1899 he was elected to the Senate of Maryland for a term of four years.

Governor Crothers recently appointed him a member of the Pure Food Commission. He is president of the Macca-bean Social Settlement, a director of the Federated Jewish Charities and a member of the joint committee on law and

legislation of the Federated Charities. He established, and is in charge of, the Legal Aid Bureau connected with the Federated Jewish Charities.

The Economic Interpretation of History

Simon N. Patten

The following letter explains itself. The editorial referred to is that of CHARITIES, March 28.

March 28, 1908.

DEAR DR. DEVINE:

Your editorials and Social Forces I always read with profound interest and satisfaction. What I read in this week's issue is not only admirable, but it is more timely than you perhaps are aware. It emphatically silences statements that I have heard again and again from ministers and others to the effect that the Charity Organization Society workers and especially the School of Philanthropy is permeated with ethically erroneous ideas adopted in toto from Dr. Patten's writings, especially his *New Basis of Civilization* and his *Economic Interpretation of History*. I consider the criticisms on Dr. Patten's position well based. He makes everything of economics and very little of the moral forces and the religious forces which are the driving forces of all economic betterment. He does not seem to agree with what Benjamin Kidd wrote many years ago in his *Social Evolution*, that the religious forces are after all the motors of advancing civilization.

Sincerely yours,

JAMES M. WHITON.

The writer of this letter is a friend. I mean by this not that he is a personal acquaintance but that he has ideals, interests and sympathies that are the same as those which move me. How comes it that one who is fair-minded should make such serious charges? Were this an individual opinion I might pass it by but I have reason to believe that others have a like opinion and distrust my writings even when they are pleased by my expressions; and I cannot afford to be indifferent for I desire to appeal to social workers and to get them to appreciate more fully the importance of their work and its bearing on current events.

The source of the false impression lies in the fact that my books are seldom read

and the impressions the public get of them come second hand through the comments of other writers. And when a popular writer puts a given interpretation on one that is not read the impression is carried on by other writers who do not take the trouble to look up the original.

The cause of my trouble comes from an early use of the phrase, "The economic interpretation of history" and my firm insistence on the importance of using economic data in interpreting historical events. All this would have been innocent enough and no one would have found fault with it if it were not for the fact that the phrase was seized upon to popularize a radically different doctrine. The occasion was the popularization of Marx's Socialistic views by Professor Seligman in his *Economic Interpretation of History*. Marx never used the phrase that Professor Seligman used as his title nor had Marx the idea which writers up to this time had employed this phrase to convey. He had called his theory "historical materialism." It had also been referred to as the materialistic view of history and some of his foreign disciples called it "economic determinism" but no one regarded it as an "economic interpretation" because this latter term conveys an idea which cannot be harmonized with materialism. Although I disagree with the new use to which Professor Seligman puts the phrase I would have no ground of complaint if he had not gone on to pronounce my views to be an exaggeration of those of Marx. He speaks in direct connection with my name of the differences between the "scientist and fanatic" and of the "vagaries of over-enthusiastic advocates." No passages from my book are cited to show that my philosophy is materialistic or that there is any connection between my views and those of Marx except those due to the new use to which he is putting a term I had emphasized. This sudden change of terminology is the only basis I know of beneath the charge that my writings are materialistic.

As, however, the new use of the phrase has become general it is necessary for me to contrast the older with the new usage

so as to make my meaning clear. When Marx used the term "materialistic concept of history" he had in mind the contrast between historical idealism and historical materialism. He opposed idealism and favored materialism. But both these phases of German thought were historical. All were agreed that the present was the child of the past and that present events were to be interpreted through similar past events. In contrast to this the economic interpretation of history holds that we know more of the present than of the past and that past events are to be interpreted in the light of present events. We must first study the present to understand the past, for the same economic laws existed then as now and they can best be studied in the present where we have the advantage of complete data and better observations.

The reasoning of historians is not an interpretation of history through the present but an interpretation of present through past events. Marx was an historian trying to throw light on present events; he was not an economist trying as I have done to throw light on the past. My view is not an exaggeration of Marx's but the opposite; for I taught a distrust of past events and all doctrines based on them. Historical materialism cannot be accepted by an economist on any data the past may offer. If he makes materialism a premise he must find it in the present and prove it by means of present data. But no economist finds the present wholly materialistic and hence he starts his studies of past epochs with the expectation that he will there find the same idealism, altruism and sympathy of which the present gives abundant proof. At the same time anyone who studies the present will find that present thought is largely economic and therefore he will be disposed to believe that the thought of the past will also be to a large degree based on economic conditions.

A recent socialistic writer has said "that the relations of men to one another in the matter of making a living are the

main underlying causes of men's habits of thought and feeling; their notions of right; propriety and legality; their institutions of society and government, their wars and revolutions."¹ I shall use this statement to contrast my views with those of Marx rather than his well known statements, because it throws in better relief the nature of the differences between an economic and materialistic concept of social change. I think that economic changes are the cause of thought development but not of feeling and motives. Thought is acquired, feelings and motives are natural. There is no evidence that the natural characters of men have changed during the epoch recorded in history. We enter life practically as our distant ancestors entered it. And their motives are our motives, their feelings are our feelings but our thoughts are not their thoughts. I agree with the writer of the above quoted letter that "religious forces are the motors of advancing civilization." I agree because I do not see that economics, science or any other thought force has as yet made an impression on the real motives and feelings of men. Deep down below the play of surface currents we are what we always have been and yet the thought of each age comes out of the economic changes which evoke its activity.

There is a great difference between saying a man is what he eats and that a man must eat to live. It is this latter more modest proposition which I hold; it is the former that lies at the basis of the material concept of history. It is a confusing of the two which makes Professor Seligman think my doctrine is an exaggeration of that of Marx.

Should any reader care to know what my views are on the topics mentioned in the above letter I refer him to the closing paragraphs of my *Development of English Thought*. These views he may not like, but I am sure he will free me from the charge of underestimating the importance of moral and religious forces.

¹Ghent, Mass and Class, page 9.

The Good Neighbor Again

Zilpha D. Smith

Associate Director Boston School
for Social Workers

Professor Patten and Dr. Devine, in *CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS* of February 29, mistaking the purpose of Miss Richmond's book, miss an opportunity to welcome an ally in the educational propaganda needed to insure improvement of conditions. Instead, they seem to suggest that she is indifferent to that improvement, which, in truth, all three urge in their varying ways and to diverse audiences. Though they differ as to the value or the place of personal service, and in their definition of the word "neighbor," yet each is working for a common end.

"Who is Miss Richmond's 'good neighbor'?" I asked of a friend who had not read the book, but had heard much about it from others. "The good citizen," was the answer; while one who had heard of it only through Professor Patten's article and the editorial thereon, replied, "The friendly visitor." The book is not "a manual for charity workers," though an excellent book for them to lend to friends who wonder what they are about. One such lent it to a professor in a scientific school, who later volunteered the comment that the chapter on housing could not have been improved by the pen of a trained sanitarian.

The book is addressed to the contributor, the church member (p. 27), and to others of charitable minds, who, like the Samaritan in the parable, wish to be kind to strangers and to pay others for services to these strangers which they cannot render themselves; and who may be willing like him to make a follow-up inquiry to learn if they have paid enough (pp. 15, 111). Miss Richmond suggests that in our day even the action of legislative committees is necessary to express this earlier ideal of neighborliness (p. 15), and to remedy the bad conditions which the book considers and would help to remove (pp. 26-7). To gain a wider recognition of the need of modified methods in dealing with poverty and its causes,

she sets herself the task of describing without technicalities the various ways in which modern Samaritans may use today's complex systems of inns and innkeepers in assisting those who have fallen among thieves (p. 19). One chapter urges the need of better schools, of clean and decent streets, of playgrounds, and another the abolition of child-labor. Still another is given to improvement in the conditions of adult labor, one to housing, and one to the cure and prevention of disease, while suggestions are made to the consumer, the employer and the landlord who would be good neighbors to those their acts affect. Income-altruism is advised, and service altruism with it (p. 17 and Ch. ix), though not "*versus* citizenship." Opportunities of service without going more than a few steps out of one's way are pointed out (*e. g.*, p. 117),—opportunities of service to persons one may never see. The work of the friendly visitor is described not as that of an "isolated wanderer" nor as "looking up cases needing aid," but as introduced and guided by others including professional workers (pp. 102, 105-110, 144), while here as elsewhere in the book (pp. 17-18), it is shown that efforts begun to cure the individual lead to preventive measures affecting many.

Of the agencies with whom Miss Richmond would have the good neighbor cooperate intelligently, twenty are named which concern themselves only with improving conditions, five (hospitals, etc.) provide physical care, while fourteen work for one or the other of these, and also for character.

In short, the book does not under-emphasize the improvement of conditions, nor to me, does it seem to over-emphasize the need of volunteer service. Indeed, if it were a brief for personal service it would be open to criticism for describing only the friendly visitor, while there are volunteer probation officers, volunteers who assist nurses and doctors, volunteer savings collectors and club-leaders, and what not.

As to the value and place of personal service, I put aside consideration of Miss Richmond's book, and speak for myself.

How to get enough of "such financial

outlay and civic action as will improve the conditions under which the less fortunate live" is a practical question before us all. We realize the truth of Professor Patten's remark in his *New Basis of Civilization* that "there is no fire in the citizen's blood to illumine the nobility of paying higher taxes . . . Altruism knocks at his purse in vain when . . . the ambulance surgeon arrives and the volunteer is superseded."

Professor Patten tells us that "our imaginations must be sharpened to see in the check-book an agent as spiritual and poetic as the grime and bloodstain of ministering hands"—but he does not tell us how to stir the imagination to that point, nor how to cultivate the judgment which shall send the checks to the right places. Personal service does both, helping us to see through the life of one, the needs of many. Volunteers help to awaken the social conscience of the community, and they inspire their friends to give. Of thirty-four gifts and legacies received by a society using volunteers, thirteen came from volunteer workers themselves, and at least eight others through knowledge of the society's work gained from volunteers.

The check-book is a possession of the few, but citizenship requires the co-operation of all. Money alone could not have freed New Orleans from yellow-fever; but given in addition to money the service of all the citizens, from the child of the immigrant and the native artisan or clerk up to the richest man who staid to help, and the work was complete. "Conditions" are made up in part of streets and houses, but much more of the men and women who use or control them.

Even those with check-books need other expression for their altruism. Active service makes a man face bad conditions cheerfully, because he feels the movement to improve them in his own pulses. A man for instance whose cheerful service in the past has helped many a boy, and has bettered conditions also, but whose home affairs now prevent his giving personal work, cannot bring himself to read *CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS* because he finds it too depressing.

Professor Patten believes that volun-

teers should be advised to work with social settlements, and not with charity organization societies. I find it best to introduce volunteers to strangers, through whatever agency takes pains to do three things: to consider the aptitudes of the volunteer, to choose among the many possible services that he can best render, and to give him training,—meaning by training the use of his own powers under guidance. In one city this agency may be the settlement, in another the society for organizing charity, in another the group working with the juvenile court or the playground. The agency chosen for these reasons may not be of the same kind in different districts of one city, as I have had occasion to observe at close range in the last four years when I have been sending from twenty to fifty volunteers a year to different agencies and getting reports from both sides as to the results. Some of these volunteers offer much service, some very little, some know the kind of work they wish to do, others vaguely want to do something,—yet there are both settlement leaders and charity organization workers who can use effectively any one of them, and at the same time broaden their view of life and win their support for larger schemes.

Many of the persons known to a society for organizing charity are also found at the settlement, and every charity worker knows that Professor Patten's classification of the cases met by a charitable society into frauds on the one hand and the victims of crushing misfortunes due to bad conditions on the other, does not fit the facts. For statistical evidence to the contrary, see Miss Brandt's analysis of the applicants to the New York Charity Organization Society (in *CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS*, Jan. 6, 1906), in which she concludes that most of the families are ordinarily self-supporting, and that they are found in just the circumstances that offer the greatest opportunity for influences which shall tend to remove them to a safe distance from the "poverty line."

Of the many friendly visitors I have known I cannot recall one who has turned socialist, as Professor Patten says

they do. Though I am not of their doctrine, socialists willing to work and serve for to-day's possible gains seem to me more hopeful and helpful as members of society, than those whose friendship with others of like tastes encloses them for the present from the sight of distress, but who now and then sign a check for the common good.

Nor have I found friendly visitors as discourteous, as "curious" or as "badly-advised" as those he describes. They did need guidance; both the novice among them and the experienced visitor sought it; and their service profited by the interpretation of their own experience through that of other visitors and of professional workers.

While Professor Patten presents the voluntary visitor as an incipient socialist, Dr. Devine associates the doctrine of personal service, not on boards and committees but in friendly visiting, with the London Charity Organisation Society, and characterizes it as the orthodox view! Yet London uses volunteer visitors only as almoners to aged pensioners, and many American societies have never added the enlistment of volunteers to the other "orthodox" methods. Is it fair to strike an average between the two gentlemen, and conclude that we who believe in friendly visitors hold a safe position on middle ground?

Like most words, "neighbor" has several meanings, and if a writer makes clear (and all three of ours do) in which meaning he uses the word, I have no quarrel with him. In social work one observes that he who begins by seeking a personal relation—a neighborly one, if you please to call it so,—is stimulated in his citizenship. He who begins as a citizen finds himself necessarily working with others whose training and tastes are unlike his own and presently making friends among them. And when one fixes upon a certain sequence from beginning to end as between neighborliness and character, between citizenship and improved conditions, it is difficult to make the formula square with real life. Agencies supported by taxation are usually supposed to represent citizenship, yet among the fourteen

agencies I have counted as working in part for character, two are supported by taxes,—the probation officers and the municipal lodging-house. When the first juvenile court was established in Chicago in 1899, a juvenile court committee raised funds to pay probation officers and secured volunteers for that service also. The successes of probation work are counted in the future character of the children under oversight. Now that the county pays probation officers, the juvenile court committee continues to provide volunteers to assist them, and pushes forward to the improvement of conditions, the work of prevention. Its branches, protective leagues, also use both volunteers and paid workers and their efforts have improved the cheap theaters and dance halls, and prevented sales to minors of liquors and of harmful drugs. Thus it has come about that citizens are paying through taxes for work which directly influences character. Volunteers are both helping by service and supporting with money work to improve conditions. Which are neighbors and which are citizens? And what does it matter while they do the work which shall gain both ends?

Gaining Health in the West¹

Reviewed by Frank D. Witherbee
Assistant Secretary Philadelphia Society for
Organizing Charity

It is but a few years since the most prevalent advice given to patients suffering from tuberculosis was to go west. What were considered hopeless cases had been known to recover wholly in the favorable climate of Colorado, New Mexico, or Arizona, and the chief emphasis was placed on the importance of getting there. How a person was to fare after he got there was, unfortunately, a secondary consideration, and the untold suffering of thousands who went, either when the disease was too advanced or with insufficient means of support, makes a black chapter in the history of the dis-

¹Gaining Health in the West, by George B. Price, New York. Pp. 139. \$1 net. This work can be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

ease. Despite the great numbers who have gone west, they have been, after all, only the exceptional cases. The great mass of the sufferers from tuberculosis have remained at home, or have gone to nearby sanatoriums, and this will continue to be the case, only to a more marked degree than formerly. For in discussing the treatment of the disease to-day we are giving the subject a different emphasis. Expert opinion tells us not to spend so much time searching out exceptional cases, but to educate every community in the local possibilities of prevention and cure. And scientific investigation supplemented by much popular discussion is making us bold to prophesy the ultimate practical eradication of this much-dreaded scourge even in those sections of the country where it thrives most.

Granting, however, that a person is infected with the disease, and that he is the exceptional one in point of view of circumstances, then this little book, which is the result of Mr. Price's seven years' experience in the West, has especial interest and value. It tells in very readable style of the many virtues of the country and climate and how it is possible for them to act as wonderful helps to a sure recovery. But the author does well to emphasize strongly the fact that the almost constant sunshine, together with the clear pure air, are only aids to recovery and can in no sense be made substitutes for the essentials of diet, all necessary physical comforts, and a contented mind.

In the chapter on Where and How to Live, the reader is given advice quite different from that which is frequently given by local physicians. Their orders are often quite imperative that boarding house life in town is not to be taken in preference to ranch life. But Mr. Price makes out a strong case against a too hasty choosing of the ranch by citing its usual lack of comforts, its considerable remove from the physician, the post-office or from telephone or telegraph, its frequent lack of congenial companionship and the consequent dangers in an emergency, not to mention the almost inevitable loneliness and depression. Ordi-

nary boarding house life has its drawbacks, but if the patient has been well trained to care for himself, the chances of infecting others or of being re-infected himself are reduced to a minimum. Here it is possible to find suitable companions and the life about him fits in better with the sort of experience the average tuberculosis patient has had. Mr. Price does not mention the fact that many who go west drift into lodging houses where one can only hire a room and must take his meals in a restaurant. There is little to be said in favor of this mode of living for well people anywhere, and the things to be said against it for sick people in the West cannot be put too strongly. Living in a tent and keeping house are both given their proper value in the discussion. And the brief for sanatorium life is well taken. Of all the modes of living in this far away section of the country the well kept sanatorium offers the most comforts and the least dangers. Its well ordered regularity create conditions most favorable to rapid progress no matter in what stage of the disease the patient may be.

One of the most interesting, partly because it is most unusual in printed discussion of this problem of tuberculosis, is the chapter on marital obligations. The chief weakness in this special climate method of treatment is the inability of most people to foresee results and to count the cost. And perhaps the most intangible quantity to figure upon is the spiritual element. Fidelity to the absent one and faithfulness to one's own highest principles are often subjected to a test of the severest kind by long separation and uncertainty regarding the outcome. If the relations between minister and people were of the proper kind, a man's spiritual adviser would be as important a one to call in consultation when a long separation is contemplated as to obtain the medical expert's judgment regarding the other elements involved. Mr. Price discusses this delicate subject with rare good sense.

Getting employment is nearly always viewed as one of the last items to be given consideration by the uninitiated. By those who know, it is easily of fore-

most importance, first as to whether the patient should attempt any work at all, and second, as to whether it is within reason for him to expect to find work such as he is able to do. After settling down in a community and forming acquaintances, and after it has been fully demonstrated that he can stand the strain, he may fit into a place that will maintain him adequately. If he has means to invest in a venture of his own there is undoubted opportunity. But for the new arrival to expect to find work at once, particularly if he is in need of earning immediately, is to doom him to bitter disappointment, and may result in great injustice to the community if he becomes dependent.

How to avoid loneliness, a discussion of the social and ethical aspects of the different communities, and an appreciative word on "the lure of the West" are other topics which are treated with the insight of one who evidently has a resourceful nature and adapts himself readily to the conditions which surround him. If all patients suffering from tuberculosis were equally resourceful there can be no question but that the West has much to offer. But the resources which present day methods of treating the disease are developing offer large inducements to the average patient to remain at home.

Elements of Hygiene¹

Reviewed by L. L. Dock

The volume of convenient size, issued as a reprint of the second part of Hough & Sedgwick's *The Human Mechanism*, is an admirable text-book for the general reader of intelligence, and contains in clear and readable form a vast amount of information, much of it of an elementary character, which is little assimilated and less employed by the majority of fairly well-informed persons. Personal hygiene, domestic hygiene and sanitation, public hygiene and sanitation are treated with succinctness, yet with an interesting method, and the book should be widely and attentively read by all who are living in a state of ignorance of or indifference to the daily practical observance of sanitary principles.

In speaking of the duty of the individual

in support of measures designed to promote the public health, and in the paragraph mentioning what the public may do to protect the health of the individual, the authors might well, we think, have drawn attention to the social cruelty of the overwork of industrial populations as a factor of extreme importance, though too often entirely disregarded in the propagation of certain infectious diseases, notably tuberculosis in its various forms. It is true that sanitary dwellings, pure water supply, clean milk and efficient scavenging, school hygiene, and notification to the authorities of all infectious disorders are public measures of high importance, but overwork underlies and antedates them all, as the appropriate soil and site under the model house. It is a singular fact that this primary cause of disease is almost universally treated with negligence even in handbooks as excellent as this, and that, in discussing measures preventive of tuberculosis it is rarely mentioned except in some off-hand generalization as to personal hygiene. Overwork, however, as a medium for the propagation of disease, lies outside of personal hygiene, as it is not always possible for the individual to protect himself. It therefore falls within the scope of public management and control.

Two Volumes of the Art of Life Series¹

Reviewed by Bertha A. Peppard

The Use of the Margin is a fitting introduction to the Art of Life series, of which Professor Griggs is the editor. Those acquainted with Professor Griggs as a lecturer will take a keen pleasure in finding his charm transferred to this book, in which is seen one aspect of his philosophy of life. Those to whom this is an introduction to the author will be eager to become better acquainted.

The Use of the Margin tells us that life is not a science, but an art wherein each experimental step leads to unforeseen results. The purpose of the series is to illumine the path, not to solve the problem of living.

This first volume is especially a book for the ambitious man who feels that because he has so much less margin than his neighbor it is useless to attempt to make that margin count. Professor Griggs tells us that every man has the same income and one reason that some men make so much greater impress than others upon the life of the world, and get so much more from their own lives, is because they value their margin, even though it be but fifteen min-

¹*The Use of the Margin*: Edward Howard Griggs. Published by B. W. Huebsch, New York, pp. 64, \$5.00.

²*Where Knowledge Fails.* Earl Barnes. Published by B. W. Huebsch, New York, \$5.00. These books may be purchased at publishers price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

¹*Elements of Hygiene, Sanitation, being Part II of the Human Mechanism: its Physiology, Hygiene and the Sanitation of its Surroundings*, by Theodore Hough and William Sedgwick, pp. 291-537. Price \$1.25.

utes a day, so much that they never "kill time" but make every second of it live.

The author urges the necessity for concentration in the use of the margin, whether it be for work, rest, or play. And he suggests that for "one who hopes, in either work or play, to achieve something significant, dissipation—the wasting of one's capital stock,—must, in any aspect of life, be rigorously excluded."

It is suggested that an amazing influence on moral and intellectual life is found in the following of one definite intellectual interest through the years, even though but a half hour, three times a week, be devoted to it. Another suggestion for the use of the margin is that of cultivating the lost art of meditation. "To live well, one must be friends with oneself." "One high use of the margin is to enable us to cultivate the art of courtesy that enables us to recover the art of friendship." And we are warned that nature is an ever-present, but usually sadly-neglected, friend.

"If then we will habitually use in such ways the margin that is ours to spend as we please, shall we not increase immeasurably the capital, in character, intelligence and appreciation, of our lives? We may hope then to be lifted out of the routine of daily existence into wide unity with the best in nature and man."

Where Knowledge Fails also has an introduction by the editor, Edward Howard Griggs, in which he says that the

aim of the series is to bring together chapters on the problems to be faced in the supreme art of living, and that the problems on which all others rest is that of faith and religion. "Our moral need is not to prove what we would like to prove, but to know what we can dare to believe and build our lives on. Can I dare to live as if I were the grass of the field, which today is, and tomorrow is cast into the oven, or as if each act of my life had infinite meaning?"

For those who are wandering and wondering among the problems on the borderland between knowledge and faith this volume by Professor Earl Barnes will prove a valuable aid. We are asked many questions which have absorbed the whole life of some of the great thinkers, and Professor Barnes shows that even the entire devotion of the brilliant minds of men like Kant and Spencer has not been able to discover an absolutely indisputable answer, and yet we individually continue to have an unshaken belief in the facts questioned.

Professor Barnes says: "When my senses are adequate and my reasoning fairly secure I must follow their decisions. I must not appeal to faith when I have to earn a living or when my child has diphtheria." "All that can be known must be known; and faith must never hesitate to make way for knowledge." On the other hand the author pleads, "not for details; but for the right of a man to believe what he cannot fully know without forfeiting his intellectual respectability."

Communications

NOT ON CHELSEA COMMITTEE

TO THE EDITOR:

In Mr. Lee's article in your number of May 2 on The Chelsea Fire, it was by mistake that my name was given as that of a member of the committee on special needs, and I should be greatly obliged if you will let me say in your number of May 16, that I am not on that or any other committee.

I have been but a few times in Chelsea—only long enough to know how finely, intelligently and unwearyingly other people—far too many to name—have worked and are working.

Boston.

FRANCES R. MORSE.

A CORRECTION

TO THE EDITOR:

By a printer's error I was made to say in your issue of May 9, that the St. Louis Tenement House Association had limited its dividend to two per cent. It should have been five. Five per cent is "investment philanthropy" with all the chances in its favor, and will succeed in St. Louis, as the City and Suburban Homes Company has made it succeed in New York; with men like Dr. Taussig and his board pushing for the day of justice to the toiler.

JACOB A. RIIS.

Civic Improvement

Charles Mulford Robinson, Department Editor

A Village Cleaning Day—Vacant Lot Gardening—Civic Spirit in Dubuque—Philadelphia's High Hopes—A Park Appeal in Lowell

A VILLAGE CLEANING DAY

A model "cleaning day" has been conducted by the Village Improvement Society of Edgeworth, Pa., the first experiment of its kind in that vicinity. It was really a day and a half. A half holiday was given in the public schools that the children might clean up the yards, and for this work four gold prizes were awarded, an inspection committee making the rounds to determine where the best work had been done. Next day, cleaning day proper, the borough teams hauled free of charge from any residence all the rubbish that had been collected. It is a pity, of course, that volunteer work of this kind should ever be needed in a community, but very frequently it is needed, and a village improvement society can be very efficient.

VACANT LOT GARDENING

Owing to the industrial depression, this spring has seen a great increase in vacant lot gardening by the poor. Many communities in which it has not been conducted in years took up the work again, while in the cities where it has been continuously practiced, it has been undertaken on a much larger scale than heretofore. Of the latter class Philadelphia is the most prominent, and because there the Vacant Lots Cultivation Association has carried on its excellently organized work with increasing energy for eleven years the results are closely studied. The table of comparative figures given below is taken from the Philadelphia *Inquirer*.

These are very interesting figures, and they fully bear out the claim that for every dollar contributed there is \$100 in direct money return, to say nothing of physical and social gains.

CIVIC SPIRIT IN DUBUQUE

The awakened civic spirit which resulted from a report on the improvement possibilities of Dubuque has taken a definite direction. The Dubuque Woman's Club, through its civic division, has purchased a picturesque strip of steep bluff on West Eighth street, to be forever preserved, unmarred, to the people. Several circumstances combine to add to the interest of this unusual enterprise. In the first place, the billboards which make the bluff hideous, will be removed. Secondly the purchase extends over the crest of the bluff, which is one of the finest viewpoints in the city, and though the summit is at present inaccessible it is hoped that a way may be found to make it available as a neighborhood park. Dubuque has no park commission as yet, and another result of the report is a very earnest agitation for one, which in time must succeed—but it was clear that for the present the people could depend upon no municipal body to purchase this particular site. That there was danger in delay had been proved by the rapidity with which other good park sites had been secured for residential and institutional purposes. Thus it was necessary for the public spirit of individuals to assert itself. That a division of the Woman's Club should have acted in the matter, shows how widespread the newly awakened interest is; and is particularly appropriate as the Woman's Club, by obtaining the assistance of the Commercial Club and Trades and Labor Congress, had been instrumental in securing the report from which the park results. Finally, the club's activity puts the women in a much better position to make later demands upon officials, since they have themselves done what they could for the public good. It may be added, that while the beauty of such sites as that which the

Year.	No. Gardens.	No. Persons Affected.	Total Product.	Average Product per Garden.	Total Cost to Contributors.
1897.....	100	528	\$6,000.00	\$60.00	\$1,825.33
1898.....	162	770	9,700.00	59.87	2,266.76
1899.....	292	1,495	14,810.80	49.35	2,650.30
1900.....	520	2,946	24,600.00	47.30	3,962.48
1901.....	632	2,386	30,000.00	47.46	4,480.94
1902.....	794	3,775	50,000.00	62.80	5,556.80
1903.....	768	3,609	36,000.00	47.00	4,837.27
1904.....	756	3,000	37,000.00	49.00	6,148.85
1905.....	750	3,500	37,500.00	50.00	5,430.47
1906.....	800	4,000	55,000.00	68.75	5,332.37
1907.....	800	4,000	54,000.00	67.50	5,876.98

women have purchased has been always sufficiently obvious; and while it has been clear that they were being shamefully neglected, and that the viewpoints were rapidly passing beyond the public's reach, it remained for the report of an outside authority to arouse the people to action. Perhaps, after all, the main value of the deed, as also its pertinence to conditions in other cities, is its suggestion for the future. Dubuque has many of these picturesque rocky cliffs to which the public has heretofore paid no attention. Where they are far enough back from the street, houses are shoved in between and they are relegated to back yards. When they are on the street's edge, as at this point on West Eighth street, they tend to become a conspicuous site for billboards, and their beautiful ferns and creepers are torn away or hidden. But the women who have bought the strip of bluff which, being unsuitable for buildings, cost very little, propose, before they give it to the public, to remove the billboards and, as the report suggested, to plant vines that shall grow against the rock, to put ferns again into the crevices, to clean away the underbrush and deadwood where the slope is slightly more gradual, and to make a place beautiful to look upon if not to occupy. All this which must surely result in a better appreciation of the city's other bluffs, half promises that the little city may come to have a distinctive beauty of its own. It is clear that the women of Dubuque are of the right stuff.

PHILADELPHIA'S HIGH HOPES

The reports of the Fairmount Park Art Association of Philadelphia are always interesting, for this ancient and honorable organization—its last annual meeting was its thirty-sixth—with its large clientage, its conservative management, its relatively enormous balance of invested funds, has something the character of a savings bank. It is typically Philadelphian. The treasurer reports, indeed, more than one hundred and fifty thousand dollars in the various funds. But the association is progressive, for its conservatism is that of carefulness, not of lethargy; and following the amendment of its charter a year ago, by which it is required "to promote and foster the beautiful in the city of Philadelphia in its architecture, improvements and general plan," the board of trustees took up the study of some of the larger problems which the development of the city beautiful presents. The time was especially favorable for such action, as the great diagonal parkway which is to connect the park with the center of the city was assured, the project of a municipal art gallery was under earnest discussion, and the old reservoir at Fairmount—no longer needed for water storage—had put into municipal possession "the finest building site in the city." The trustees decided that expert study of the possibilities thus

created was most advisable and they employed three prominent local architects, Professor Cret and Messrs. Zantzinger and Trumbauer, to plan "a comprehensive scheme for the development of the parkway and of that portion of the park itself with which it was to be connected." The commission studied the subject very carefully, was in constant communication with the mayor and with the heads of the municipal departments most interested, and at the annual meeting brought in its report. In this two plans were presented, a "best" and a "compromise." It is not worth while perhaps to go into details here, for it would require much description of local conditions; but a very spacious and imposing effect is promised by either one; and the mayor, who was asked for a speech after the report was submitted, closed his remarks with these words: "Let us all join hands and say, 'This is the right thing to do, this is not one man's project, but is the call of all the people for the people, and let us put it through together.'"

A PARK APPEAL IN LOWELL

The report of the park commission of Lowell, Mass., for the current year is only its fifth annual. But the commission is composed of the right sort of men and it has the right sort of superintendent, and already a good deal has been done. The report stands out with an individuality and interest all its own. The superintendent's report concludes with an appeal. He says he believes "that to love trees and shrubs, and open fields, birds and flowers, rivers, lakes, and skies, makes a man unselfish. He wishes others to enjoy that which he values so highly. It makes him have at heart the true welfare of his country, the happiness and contentment of its citizens," and he adds: "In the city's throng there are thousands who cannot get near to nature. At the gateway of the country the angel of necessity stands with the drawn sword of want, forbidding the hard-working, bread-seeking crowd to enter. It is the park that lays itself at the very feet of the tired and offers its comfort to the bodies and souls that are weary with toil. It gives the pure, healthy smell of the fields to lungs stifled by the foul air of the tenements and the unsanitary condition of the crowded street. No angel stands with forbidden sword, waving away the tired and weary multitudes; no wall of wealth girdles this domain of nature where the kingdom of God opens itself in the park. No mother need stand outside the fence, thinking bitter thoughts as she looks through the chinks and sees some other mother's baby luxuriating in a private garden. Her baby, too, can roll on the grass and gather strength from Mother Earth. The wealth of millions serves her baby. Shame on the man who complains of park taxation. What is money against childhood and the

comfort of motherhood? No barefoot, tattered boy need stand on the hot pavement and see other boys, no better than he is, playing where he dare not because he is poor. The park is his playground." Again, he says: "The true purpose of a large public park is to provide for the dwellers in cities convenient opportunity to enjoy beautiful natural scenery and to obtain occasional re-

lief from the nervous strain due to the excessive artificiality of city life. . . . Some people will tell you that it is not practical to care for beautiful things; but it really is practical, because it helps to make life sweeter and better. You will find it well worth cultivating, this love for the beautiful, and when you once have it in your hearts, you will never be willing to part with it."

Prevention of Tuberculosis

Livingston Farrand, Department Editor

**National Association to Meet—Educational Work in Chicago—Hospital for Advanced Cases—Tuberculosis Clinics—Stockyards Dispensaries—
A Local Sanatorium—Progress in Missouri**

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION TO MEET

The fourth annual meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis will be held at the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, on Friday and Saturday, June 5 and 6.

The preliminary program of the meeting is announced as follows, the hours being subject to possible change:

FRIDAY, JUNE 5, 12.00 M. GENERAL MEETING.

Address of president.
Report of the executive secretary.
Report on the International Congress.
Preliminary business of the association.

2.00 P. M. JOINT MEETING OF THE CLINICAL AND PATHOLOGICAL SECTIONS.

Clinical Section, Dr. Henry Sewall, Denver, Colo., chairman; Dr. Henry W. Hoagland, Colorado Springs, Colo., secretary.

Pathological Section, Dr. L. Hektoen, Chicago, chairman; Dr. Ethan Allen Gray, Chicago, secretary.

1. Subcutaneous, Cutaneous and Ophthalmic Application of Tuberculin for Diagnostic Purposes, Dr. Arnold C. Klebs, Chicago. Discussion opened by Dr. Edward R. Baldwin, Saranac Lake.

2. Clinical Study of the Effect of Tuberculin Treatment on the Agglutinating Power of Human Serum, Drs. Hugh M. Kinghorn and David C. Twitchell, Saranac Lake.

3. The Heart in Tuberculosis, Dr. Lawrason Brown, Saranac Lake. Discussion opened by Dr. R. H. Babcock, Chicago.

4. The Changes in the Lungs in Systemic Blastomycosis as Contrasted with those of Tuberculosis, Dr. E. R. LeCount, Chicago.

4.00 P. M. SECTION OF TUBERCULOSIS IN CHILDREN.

Dr. William Fitch Cheney, San Francisco, chairman; Dr. Frank S. Churchill, Chicago, secretary.

Program to be announced.

8.00 P. M. JOINT MEETING OF THE ADVISORY COUNCIL AND THE SOCIOLOGICAL SECTION.

Symposium—With a State Sanatorium Secured What Next? Discussion by Dr. Louis M. Warfield, Missouri; A. E. Keppord, Iowa; Christopher Easton, Minnesota; Dr. Edwin A. Locke, Massachusetts; William C. Smallwood, New Jersey; H. Wirt Steele, Maryland; Homer Folke, New York; Dr. Gardner T. Swarts, Rhode Island, and others.

SATURDAY, JUNE 6, 9.30 A. M. CLINICAL SECTION.

Clinical Application of the Caccine Therapy, Dr. Sherman G. Bonney, Denver, Colo. Discussion by Dr. Gerald B. Webb, Colorado Springs.

Explanation of a Seeming Paradox in Modern Phthisio-therapy with Particular Reference to Sun, Air, Water and Food as Remedial Agents, Dr. S. A. Knopf, New York. Discussion opened by Dr. Woods Hutchinson, New York.

The organization of the Anti-Tuberculosis Work in Boston, Dr. Edwin A. Locke, Boston. Discussion opened by Dr. Lawrence F. Flick, Philadelphia.

Report of the Committee on Nomenclature, Dr. Vincent Y. Bowditch, Boston, chairman. Discussion opened by Dr. Herbert Maxon King.

11.00 A. M. SURGICAL SECTION.

Dr. A. E. Halsted, Chicago, chairman; Dr. Frederick C. Besley, Chicago, secretary.

Comparative Results in Opsonic Index Work, Dr. J. C. Hollister, Chicago.

Tuberculosis Abscesses—Their Management, Dr. E. W. Ryerson, Chicago, Ill.

12.30 P. M. BUSINESS MEETING.

Election of officers, etc.

2.30 P. M. SOCIOLOGICAL SECTION.

Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago, chairman;
Alexander M. Wilson, Chicago, secretary.

The Prevalence and Prevention of Tuberculosis in Charitable and Correctional Institutions.

(a) Prisons, Dr. J. B. Ransom, Danemora, N. Y.

(b) Insane Hospitals, Dr. H. A. Tomlinson, St. Peter, Minn.

(c) Institutions for Children, Dr. Ethan Allen Gray, Chicago.

(d) The Almshouse.

EDUCATIONAL WORK IN CHICAGO

For two months past especial emphasis has been laid upon educational work among the Negroes of Chicago. Beginning with a mass meeting last winter at the Art Institute where physicians, white and colored, pointed out the need of information among a group having a death rate from tuberculosis four times that of the city at large, the movement has spread rapidly. A committee of Negro citizens of Chicago for the prevention of tuberculosis was formed in affiliation with the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute and a series of lectures in colored churches is being given. The leaders of the race, lay and medical, have enlisted in a campaign for cleaner homes and neighborhoods and for better habits of living.

The Chicago Federation of Labor has set apart an hour at its next meeting for the discussion of tuberculosis by the officers of the institute, and through its executive committee has pledged its co-operation in educational propaganda.

HOSPITAL FOR ADVANCED CASES

At the spring election, April 7, a bond issue of \$2,000,000 for a new county infirmary was overwhelmingly passed. The state is soon to take over the present plant at Dunning for an insane hospital and the bond issue is to provide new buildings for the care of the poor and infirm on a new site recently purchased at Blue Island, seventeen miles southwest of the city. The county board has entertained favorably the recommendation of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute that provision for advanced consumptives be made within the city limits under separate administration from that of the almshouse. This will be accomplished by the authorized bond issue, as it was one of the arguments used in the campaign for a favorable vote.

TUBERCULOSIS CLINICS

The six dispensaries opened by the institute last December are fulfilling their purpose admirably. They are run as separate clinics at the dispensaries of Policlinic, Rush, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Northwestern, Hahnemann and the Jewish Aid So-

ciety. From forty to sixty examinations are made each week, the total for all clinics to date, April 10, being 762.

STOCKYARDS DISPENSARIES

Distances are so magnificent in Chicago that it has been found desirable to establish clinics in outlying districts where no medical schools or hospitals now maintain dispensaries. The first of these will open May 1, in the stockyards district near the corner of Halsted and 47th streets, supported almost entirely by the meat packing interests.

A LOCAL SANATORIUM

The Glackin bill, passed by the legislature last winter, has received the signature of Governor Deneen. This law permits a unique departure from the usual methods of establishing sanatoriums. By its provisions one hundred voters in any city or village in Illinois may demand a referendum on the proposition to levy a tax not to exceed four mills annually for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a local tuberculosis sanatorium.

The law becomes effective July 1 of this year and the next local election, one year hence, should offer an opportunity for Chicago, and perhaps many other cities in the state, to decide whether this effective weapon in the warfare on consumption shall be seized. To many the establishment of a sanatorium by each large city or by several nearby smaller communities seems a much more reasonable solution than creating a single state institution. An aggressive campaign for a favorable vote when this proposal is submitted to referendum is next year's task for the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute and plans to wage it are being formulated.

In the meantime the institute, by maintaining high standards at Naperville, The Edward Sanatorium, is both giving an effective object lesson on sanatorium methods and offering the only facilities within several hundred miles of Chicago for the treatment of tuberculosis at rates within the reach of people of moderate circumstances.

PROGRESS IN MISSOURI

The Missouri Association for the Relief and control of Tuberculosis was organized in May, 1907, through the activity of the members of the St. Louis Society for the relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis. The chief object of the state association has been the organization of local societies for the prevention of the disease in all parts of the state.

The success of the movement is shown by the fact that during the year the following societies which are now operating actively in their respective counties were organized: Jackson County Society for the Relief and

Prevention of Tuberculosis, The Ralls County Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, Moniteau County Society for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis, Cape Girardeau County Society for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis, Howard County Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, Cole County Society for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis.

Meetings have also been held in Clay and Lawrence counties where permanent organizations will be effected in the near future.

The policy of the state association in its organization has been to follow the political districting of the state in the election of its officers. There is a director of the association in each state representative district, giving 142 members of the board. A vice-president for each senatorial district has been elected making thirty-four, while one councillor is chosen for each congressional district. It is the duty of directors, vice-presidents and councillors to forward and encourage the organization of local societies in their respective districts.

It is announced that the Mount Vernon State Sanatorium for Incipient Consumptives has just opened another villa, making it possible to accommodate at the present time about fifty patients.

Kansas City is building a hospital for tuberculous patients and the Health Department of St. Louis is planning for a \$250,000 municipal sanatorium for consumptives within the next few years.

A bill has passed the legislature providing for the appointment of a commission of nine citizens to investigate the prevalence of tuberculosis in St. Louis and to recommend measures for its elimination. This commission is to serve for one year without compensation but has an appropriation of \$2,500 for expenses.

CHICAGO NEGROES IN THE CAMP

The committee of the Negro citizens of Chicago on the prevention of tuberculosis, organized under the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, is the answer that the leaders of Chicago's Negro population give to the challenge of the tuberculosis statistics among the Negroes. According to a special bulletin of the Health Department, "During the past four years the death rate from consumption among the Negroes of Chicago was 235.7 per cent higher than among the white population. Of the 3,701 Negro deaths for the past four years 43.5 per cent were caused by the chief impure air diseases: tuberculosis, 24.8; pneumonia, 16.8; and bronchitis, 1.9 per cent." The last published annual report of the Health Department shows that in 1906 there were among the 30,000 to 40,000 Negro residents of Chicago no less than 235 deaths from tuberculosis—one-fourth of the total number of deaths from all causes among the Negroes of the city. During the same period tuberculosis caused one-ninth of the total

deaths from disease among the white population.

The Health Department bulletin points out some of the living conditions among Negroes—their crowded and ill-ventilated homes, poor food and intemperate habits, their sociable way of gathering together in small rooms with little or no ventilation, and their inclination to trust to nostrums.

The educational campaign which the new committee has undertaken was started off with enthusiasm at a largely attended meeting Sunday afternoon, February 9. More than 300 Negroes came to Fullerton Hall in the Art Institute, to listen to Health Commissioner W. A. Evans, State Senator Glackin and others who are pushing forward the fight on tuberculosis, among whom several Negro physicians were vigorous in their rallying call to their fellows.

The committee, consisting of fifteen or twenty members, is mapping out a careful study of the statistics, and is already outlining a thoroughgoing effort to educate through literature and addresses the Negro churches and other organizations. It is possible that a special nurse may be engaged, paid partly by the committee and partly by the Tuberculosis Institute, the work to be done under the latter organization. The officers of the committee are: President, A. W. Springs, M. D.; vice-president, A. W. Mercer, M. D.; second vice-president, A. L. Smith, M. D.; secretary, A. Wilberforce Williams, M. D.; assistant secretary, Noah D. Thompson; treasurer, George C. Hall, M. D.

SANATORIUMS BY REFERENDUM

In passing the Glackin bill the Illinois legislature has taken a step which will not only facilitate the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoriums throughout the state, but afford a basis for far reaching educational campaigns on the subject of tuberculosis. The bill provides that on petition of one hundred votes, the city council or the supervisors in any city or village in Illinois must at the next municipal or village election submit the proposition to establish a local sanatorium for tuberculosis to a referendum vote. While the need for sanatoriums ought to be increasingly met under this action of the legislature, the opportunity for effective popular education through the referendum campaigns is most interesting and significant. It is expected that the bill will immediately receive the signature of Governor Deneen. It goes into effect July 1, so that the first chance to put it in use in Chicago will be in April, 1909.

PRIZES AT THE CONGRESS

The International Congress on Tuberculosis which will meet in Washington, September 21 to October 12, will award prizes to especially meritorious exhibits.

I. A prize of \$1,000 is offered for the best evidence of effective work in the prevention or relief of tuberculosis by any voluntary association since the last International Congress in 1905. In addition to the prize of \$1,000 two gold medals and three silver medals will be awarded.

Evidence is to include all forms of printed matter, educational leaflets, etc.; report showing increase of membership, organization, classes reached—such as labor unions, schools, churches, etc.; lectures given; influence in stimulating local Boards of Health, schools, dispensaries, hospitals for the care of tuberculosis; newspaper clippings of meetings held; methods of raising money; method of keeping accounts.

Each competitor must present a brief or report in printed form. No formal announcement of intention to compete is required.

II. A prize of \$1,000 is offered for the best exhibit of an existing sanatorium for the treatment of curable cases of tuberculosis among the working classes. In addition to the prize of \$1,000 two gold medals and three silver medals will be awarded.

The exhibit must show in detail construction, equipment, management, and results obtained. Each competitor must present a brief or report in printed form.

III. A prize of \$1,000 is offered for the best exhibit of a furnished house, for a family or group of families of the working class, designed in the interest of the crusade against tuberculosis. In addition to the prize of \$1,000, two gold medals and three silver medals will be awarded.

This prize is designed to stimulate efforts toward securing a maximum of sun-light, ventilation, proper heating, and general sanitary arrangement for an inexpensive home. A model of house and furnishing is required. Each competitor must present a brief with drawings, specifications, estimates, etc., with an explanation of points of special excellence. Entry may be made under competitor's own name.

IV. A prize of \$1,000 is offered for the best exhibit of a dispensary or kindred institution for the treatment of the tuberculous poor. In addition to the prize of \$1,000, two gold medals and three silver medals will be awarded.

The exhibit must show in detail construction, equipment, management, and results obtained. Each competitor must present a brief or report in printed form.

V. A prize of \$1,000 is offered for the best exhibit of a hospital for the treatment of advanced pulmonary tuberculosis. In addition to the prize of \$1,000, two gold medals and three silver medals will be awarded.

The exhibit must show in detail construction, equipment, management and results obtained. Each competitor must present a brief or report in printed form.

VI. The Hodgkins Fund Prize of \$1,500 is offered by the Smithsonian Institution,

Washington, D. C., in accordance with the following announcement:

In 1891 Thomas George Hodgkins, Esquire, of Setauket, New York, made a donation to the Smithsonian Institution, the income from a part of which was to be devoted to "the increase and diffusion of more exact knowledge in regard to the nature and properties of atmospheric air in connection with the welfare of man."

In the furtherance of the donor's wishes, the Smithsonian Institution has from time to time offered prizes, awarded medals, made grants for investigations, and issued publications.

In connection with the approaching International Congress on Tuberculosis, which will be held in Washington, September 21, to October 12, 1908, a prize of \$1,500.00 is offered for the best treatise that may be submitted to that congress On the Relation of Atmospheric Air to Tuberculosis.

The treatises may be written in English, French, German, Spanish or Italian. They will be examined and the prize awarded by a committee appointed by the secretary of the Smithsonian Institution in conjunction with the officers of the International Congress on Tuberculosis.

VII. Prizes for educational leaflets:

A prize of \$100 is offered for the best educational leaflet submitted in each of the seven classes defined below. In addition to the prize of \$100, a gold medal and two silver medals will be awarded in each class.

Competitors must be entered under assumed names.

- A. For adults generally (not to exceed 1,000 words).
- B. For teachers (not to exceed 2,000 words).
- C. For mothers (not to exceed 1,000 words).
- D. For in-door workers (not to exceed 1,000 words).
- E. For dairy farmers (not to exceed 1,000 words).
- F. For school children in grammar school grades (not to exceed 500 words).

In classes A, B, C, D, E, and F, brevity of statement without sacrifice of clearness will be of weight in awarding. All leaflets entered must be printed in the form they are designed to take.

- G. Pictorial booklet for school children in primary grades and for the nursery.

Class G is designed to produce an artistic picture-book for children, extolling the value of fresh air, sunlight, cleanliness, etc., and showing contrasting conditions. "Slovenly Peter" has been suggested as a possible type. Entry may be made in the form of original designs without printing.

VIII. A gold medal and two silver medals are offered for the best exhibits sent in by any states of the United States, illustrating effective organization for the restriction of tuberculosis.

IX. A gold medal and two silver medals are offered for the best exhibits sent in by any state or country (the United States excluded), illustrating effective organization for the restriction of tuberculosis.

X. A gold medal and two silver medals are offered for each of the following exhibits; each medal will be accompanied by a diploma or certificate of award; wherever possible each competitor is required to file a brief or printed report:

- A. For the best contribution to the pathological exhibit.
- B. For the best exhibit of laws and ordinances in force June 1, 1908, for the prevention of tuberculosis by any state of the United States. Brief required.
- C. For the best exhibit of laws and ordinances in force June 1, 1908, for the prevention of tuberculosis by any state or country (the United States excluded). Brief required.
- D. For the best exhibit of laws and ordi-

nances in force June 1, 1908, for the prevention of tuberculosis by any municipality in the world. Brief required.

- E. For the society engaged in the crusade against tuberculosis having the largest membership in relation to population. Brief required.
- F. For the plans which have been proven best for raising money for the crusade against tuberculosis. Brief required.
- G. For the best exhibit of a passenger railway car in the interest of the crusade against tuberculosis. Brief required.
- H. For the best plans for the employment of arrested cases of tuberculosis. Brief required.

XI. A gold medal and two silver medals are offered for the best exhibit of a workshop or factory, constructed and managed in the interest of the crusade against tuberculosis. Each medal will be accompanied by a diploma or certificate of award.

The exhibit must show in detail construction, equipment, management, and results obtained. Each competitor must present a brief or report in printed form.

Jottings

Philanthropy Inspired by a Child.—It is not often that a homeless girl, fourteen years old, is able to secure help and opportunity for other unfortunates like herself. This has happened, however, in Illinois, where the Children's Home and Aid Society has received a \$70,000 gift, which was inspired by one of the society's wards for whom it had found a home. A. B. Judy, of Potomac, Illinois, who adopted the little girl, has been led to appreciate so highly the work of the society that he has given it 400 acres of his farm-land about 100 miles south from Chicago, valued at \$150 an acre. Upon the property there is a brick school building two stories high with basement and attic. The interior has not yet been finished, but Mr. Judy plans to finish it thoroughly and in such a way that the building will prove useful as an industrial school. The society expects to erect an addition to the main building, which will include a kitchen, dining-room, laundry and bedrooms.

By the terms of the gift the society must raise an endowment fund of at least \$100,000 and in accordance with Mr. Judy's wish the institution will in same way commemorate the name of Mrs. Mary A. Judy, his mother.

The home which the society has maintained at Rantoul, Illinois, will be closed, and the new institution at Potomac will be developed to take its place and to provide as well facilities for much larger work. While the immediate end in view is the establishment of an industrial school for girls, it is stated in the gift that the property

may be used, if in the future it appears advisable, for boys also.

Octavia Hill Association Report.—The annual report of the Octavia Hill Association of Philadelphia has been received. The organization began its work eleven years ago along the lines followed by Miss Octavia Hill in London, buying up or securing the agency for old houses, both tenement buildings and cottages, and by careful management making of them safe, well repaired and wholesome dwellings. Three hundred and fifty families in the poorer part of the city now live in houses under the care of the association. But the work has considerably broadened within the past five years, and in addition to managing the buildings under its control, the association has been making active effort to secure good legislation and proper enforcement of laws to bring about an improvement in housing throughout the entire city. As a result of its activity, at the 1907 session of the Pennsylvania Legislature the enactment of a law providing for municipal licensing and inspection of tenement houses was secured and two inspectors were appointed.

Addition to the Jewish Sanatorium at Denver.—An additional building to the sanatorium of the Jewish Consumptives' Relief Society, given by the New York Ladies' Auxiliary, has been dedicated at Denver. The pavilion cost \$10,000. It has about twenty beds and a complete equipment.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

LICENSES REVOKED IN BALTIMORE

Six saloons within 300 feet of one school, eight saloons within 300 feet of another and two other schools each having three saloons within 300 feet of their doors,—that was the condition in a Baltimore district seven blocks long and three blocks wide until last week when the Board of Liquor License Commissioners refused licenses to eleven of the forty-five saloons in this particular district. This is largely the result of the work of the Law and Order League of Baltimore, an organization of colored citizens which is endeavoring to clean up some of the centers of vice which exist in the Negro quarters of the city. The whites are co-operating with the Negroes in this movement which received its impetus at a meeting held at the home of Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, where a committee of five prominent citizens was appointed to co-operate with the colored committee. The Law and Order League appeared before the license commissioners, who have arbitrary power to revoke licenses, and stated that forty-five saloons were entirely too many for the district which they represented. It is interesting to note that this district is the tuberculosis center of Baltimore and the state of Maryland and that it contains twelve schools, fourteen churches, a Y. M. C. A. and a Y. W. C. A. For these reasons the Law and Order League is to be particularly congratulated on its victory. The campaign will be carried on in other quarters of the city.

PURE WATER NOW FURNISHED

Drinking water, physically pure and bacteria-free, is now an actual reality in Pittsburgh for the residence section of the East End, at least. On the seventh of last December the new filtration plant began to send filtered water across the river to the distributing reservoir which supplied the downtown and mill district. By March 1, 8,000,000 gallons a day were being pumped across; this was mixed with raw water from the sedimentation basins to the amount of 32,000,000 gallons daily. As fast as a new filter bed was ready for use, it was whipped into service; and when the supply of filtered water due to addition of filters was sufficient to fill Highland Reservoir No. 1, the water was turned from the downtown district to the residence section of the East, where the people live rather than where they work. At the present time twenty-four of the forty-six covered filter beds (each an acre in extent) were sending 32,000,000 gallons daily in this way. The maximum capacity of each filter is 3,000,000 gallons daily though it is not considered wise to run them to their full capacity. These forty-six beds, all of which will be in working order by the end of the summer, will give 105 million gallons per day without any difficulty and will supply both Old Pittsburgh and the South Side. To provide the North Side, the former Allegheny, with filtered water, ten new filter beds will be constructed on ground at the northern end of the present plant. Plans for these ten new filters

are being drawn; the necessary bond issue has already been voted; bids will be advertised, and contracts let as soon as possible.

By fall all of old Pittsburgh will be receiving filtered water; and unless litigation in the courts in connection with the city's taking over the property of the Monongahela Water Company causes further delay, the same will be true of the South Side by the end of the year; while if rushed to completion, the North Side supply (old Allegheny City) ought to be available by the end of 1910.

FROM THE STABLE TO THE TABLE

The Baltimore City Council has passed a milk ordinance that will secure in the future an adequate inspection from stable to table. The fight for pure milk started two years ago when a milk exhibit was held in McCoy Hall at Johns Hopkins University. The ordinance just passed was drawn up by the Health Department with the aid of the city solicitor. Besides providing for proper inspection, it organizes a system of permits by which only licensed dealers are allowed to sell milk. These licenses can be revoked in case of repeated violations of the health ordinance and after ten days' notice to the offender, who has the privilege of a public hearing in his defense.

The ordinance was advocated by the Federated Charities. The small milk dealers opposed the proposed ordinance and a substitute which would have nullified the essential provisions of the original measure was introduced. The Charity Organization Society brought the situation before the social workers of Baltimore; organizations were formed in every precinct of the city urging the passage of the Health Department ordinance, the City Council was flooded with protests and the original ordinance passed,—twenty to four in the first branch of the council and unanimously in the second branch. The ordinance goes into effect on June 1.

FEDERAL WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The latest attempt to secure workmen's compensation legislation for federal employes is embodied in a bill introduced by Representative Alexander of New York and passed by the House on May 16. Three other compensation bills have already been introduced in Congress at this session, two of them being of little importance. Last February Representative John A. Sterling of Illinois introduced the third of these measures, which has since been reposing in the house committee on the judiciary. The Alexander bill, it is understood, has the support of the administration, though its provisions in the main are far less liberal than those of the Sterling bill. Compensation legislation, also, it is understood, is one of the few remaining measures that labor has reason to expect Congress to pass this session.

The Alexander bill covers all artisans and laborers employed by the United States in its manufacturing establishments or navy yards or "in hazardous employment under the Isthmian Canal Commission." If the employe is injured in the course of his employment he is "entitled to receive for one year thereafter, unless sooner able to return to work, the same pay as if he had continued to be employed." No compensation is to be paid where the injury is due to negligence or misconduct of the man himself. Both this question and the matter of regulations concerning payment are to be determined by the secretary of commerce and labor. Thus, though contributory negligence remains, the "fellow servant rule" is abolished and the doctrine of "assumption of risk" modified.

If the employe dies within the year leaving a widow or children under sixteen years of age or a dependent mother, these all, or any of them, are entitled to receive in equal portions the same compensation to which the employe would have been entitled for the rest of the year. If any of them die, or any children reach the age of sixteen, their shares are added to the amounts payable to the others.

The third section of the law provides for notification by official superiors of such employes to the secretary of commerce and labor whenever such accidents occur. The injured man or the beneficiaries must file an affidavit and a physician's certificate in ninety days, or "if the incapacity for work lasts more than thirty days . . . within a reasonable time after the expiration of such time." The right to compensation having been established to the satisfaction of the secretary of commerce and labor, it is to be paid.

The secretary may cause the injured man to be examined by physicians from time to time; fraud is punishable by fine of \$1,000 or imprisonment for two years; payments are not subject to creditors; the government can not exempt itself from liability by any contract or agreement; conflicting acts are repealed; and, if passed, this act is to go into effect July 1.

The Sterling bill is much more liberal. Its object is "to compensate civilian government employes for personal injury in service." This bill was summarized recently in a magazine as follows: It provides for compensation of such employes in the United States and the various government operations connected with the Panama canal (whether hazardous or not) except where injuries are due to serious or wilful misconduct. The first thirty days are not included, and only employes earning \$2,500 a year or less are affected. In case of death, if relatives wholly dependent are left, a sum is to be awarded equal to earnings of five years previous, not less than \$2,000 nor more than \$10,000, or, in case of a shorter time of employment, calculated on the basis of average annual wages. If there are relatives partially dependent, the compensation is a sum not exceeding two years' wages nor more than \$1,800. The secretary of commerce and labor is to determine both the degree of dependence and the proportion payable to each dependent. If there are no dependents, however, then reasonable medical attendance and burial expenses, not exceeding \$150, are provided for. If the victim is incapacitated for work, then sixty per

cent of earnings each month, not to exceed \$50 a month, is granted. If the incapacity should exceed one year, the secretary shall cause an examination to be made, and if the incapacity proves permanent, a sum ten times the annual amount payable to the employe shall be paid. Whenever such an accident (that is, death or incapacity) occurs in any department of the government it must be reported to the head of the department and thence to the secretary of commerce and labor. In case of death an affidavit must be filed by the person entitled to compensation within ninety days, and in case of incapacity, by the employe within thirty days. The secretary determines compensation, may increase or diminish it or discontinue it. Fraudulence is declared a misdemeanor, payments are not to be subject to claims of creditors, it is provided that no other acts shall conflict with this, and this act, if passed, is to go into effect July 1. Congress is asked in the Sterling bill to appropriate a sum, yet to be determined, to make the act effective.

Strictly speaking, neither the Alexander nor the Sterling bills are anything more than a loose form of compensation. Rather they are a broadened form of liability—the Sterling bill being much broader than the Alexander bill. Neither is as scientific as the British compensation act of 1897, or as the laws of any other of the twenty-one countries which have them. Both give the secretary of commerce and labor quite broad judicial powers, though perhaps there is little objection to that. Both are rather loosely drawn, but if the senate should tighten up the gaps in either of these bills, the United States would take a long step forward—for it is scarcely conceivable that it will fail of passage.

Relief Work in Petersburg Before the War

J. Willcox Brown

Petersburg, Virginia, was before the Civil War a comparatively prosperous city. It had a population of about 25,000 of whom one-half were slaves. There

were in and around it quite a number of cotton factories employing many men, women and children, all being white. These were almost wholly natives or permanent residents, dependent on the activity of the mills for their livelihood. There were a large number of tobacco factories but their hands were all Negroes, very few of whom were free. Besides the cotton factories there were some other industries employing adult male white labor.

There was a severe financial panic in 1857, resulting in very serious disturbances in the business world and throwing out of work a considerable proportion of the white workers. There was consequently not a small amount of suffering in the place and likewise a sudden and large increase in the demands on the charitable. Indeed street begging for the first time appeared on a noticeable scale. The matter attracted the attention of some of the principal citizens and an association was formed to meet the exigencies of the case. I was among those most interested and made an address in which we asked that there should be no alms given to beggars and promising that we would see to it that there should be no physical suffering which attention and money could prevent. Of course it was understood this was to meet the wants of the whites, for the Negroes were well cared for by their masters and to that end under the protection of the law. The few free Negroes in the community were also to be provided for. There being an acceptance of this proposition (so far as we could judge) on the part of the community, we set to work.

We formed a committee of twelve, acting in concert, but dividing themselves into small committees for the several wards of the city. We selected a treasurer, provided a store house and employed a person whom we thought well fitted for the task, an elderly gentleman named Jordan, as the general agent.

Our first undertaking was to provide the necessary funds to meet the existing demands, and we began in the way which was afterwards pursued over and over again as our treasury became depleted. The sub-committees made house to house

visits in their own wards and invited subscriptions from everyone who was not a beneficiary. We stated our needs and suggested the amounts of the donations in many cases. I recall that a Mr. Young and I once selected a very snowy day for our rounds and were very successful. We even went to places which we would not ordinarily have visited, and among other donations I remember one of six and a quarter cents (one of the coins commonly used in those days) from a person, who, though well to do, expressed himself as not being in sympathy with us.

There was a good deal of wealth in the city and we were never in want of money, finding no difficulty in obtaining whatever sums we said were required for our uses. I think I cannot too positively urge that this was our exact experience.

In the distribution of the funds everything was done on strictly business principles. Mr. Jordan kept a book which was submitted to the full committee at regular meetings (I think weekly) in which were entered the names of all of the recipients of aid. The list was gone over carefully and every case examined and passed on. The book gave all family particulars, number of children, days of employment and idleness, resources and requirements in each case, and suggestions as to what might be done to assist. In fact we had laid bare before us the needs of all of the needy whose names were on our books, and the lists were regularly revised. Appropriations were made to meet the existing requirements, and were added to or lessened, continued, stopped or renewed, as called for by the varying circumstances of each individual or family.

Of course there were complaints made of Mr. Jordan and accusations of favoritism, etc., but while they were duly considered there was none of them substantiated, so far as I recollect, and I believe that we had before us all the time a true picture of the condition of all of our listed men, women and children. We were strict in requiring that nothing should be given to encourage idleness or thriftlessness and I am now, as I was then, firm in

the conviction that among those whom we reached in this way there was no such thing as preventable suffering. There was a systematic effort to obtain employment for deserving persons temporarily deprived of it and particularly to put the young in the way of qualifying themselves for and securing permanent remunerative work. As time passed our success in meeting the difficulties of the situation seemed to increase.

There was one class of sufferers for whom we found ourselves compelled to make provision in another way. These were the people who were unwilling to allow themselves to be the recipients of public, or rather published charity. Our attention was first called to the existence of such a condition by the accidental discovery of the absolutely helpless and starving state of the widow and children of a near relative of one of our Virginia presidents. The poor lady would have continued to suffer but for the fact that a neighbor was called in suddenly to see a very ill child, and found the family without even the most ordinary necessities. To meet this and similar demands we made an arrangement by which each of the committee of twelve was allowed \$25 per month to use at his discretion without report, it being understood that this provision was intended to meet such cases as the above.

The work of this association was kept up until the beginning of the war and became more efficient as time passed, but the war carried nearly all of us into the field and circumstances were such as perhaps to render the continuance of the same system impossible. At any rate there was no continuance of it, and the only substitute was the establishment of a soup-kitchen at which all applicants were supplied from day to day with a moderate quantity of food and some slight attempt made to meet some of the most appealing cases.

A good many years ago I made diligent efforts to find the records and books of our association but they were all destroyed during the siege of Petersburg and I could not discover anywhere any trace of them. So far as I know I am

the only one of the active men participating in this work now living, but I am entirely confident of the exact reliability of every statement made by me above.

Some Problems of Social Research

William R. Patterson

Bureau of Municipal Research, New York

The first fruit of the modification of the constitution of the American Statistical Association permitting meetings to be held outside Boston, was a recent dinner at the Yale Club, New York. Carroll D. Wright presided and some forty persons were in attendance; among them, John Koren, Mr. Ditmer of Boston, Robert W. Heberd, commissioner of charities; John M. Glenn, Prof. Franklin A. Giddings, Prof. Henry R. Seager and others of New York city. The topic of the evening was embodied in an excellent paper read by Frederick L. Hoffman of the Prudential Life Insurance Company of Newark, N. J. The title of Mr. Hoffman's paper was Problems of Social Statistics and Social Research. The reader pointed out that a sense of social responsibility had been developed within comparatively recent times, and it was to the end that this social responsibility might be met that research of this nature should be undertaken. The object of social research as presented by the reader of the evening was the solution of the problem of poverty with all its resulting problems. This solution requires adequate and conclusive data free even of suspicion of bias in their collection, or serious error in their analysis. The sentimental bias of many social workers must be laid aside, and the skilled investigator trained in statistics and the aims of social research should be called into play.

The method to be followed in conducting this work was outlined as follows:

1. A search for the available literature of the subject from which such extracts should be made as afford an intelligent, historical retrospect of what has been accomplished in the same direction in the past;

2. An abstract prepared of all existing statistical material. This abstract to serve as a basis for formulating the inquiry;
3. Personal investigation by the best talent that can be secured;
4. Tabulation of data and its coordination to data previously collected as shown by the abstract;
5. Analysis of data presented.

The great problems that appeared open for solution by this method were outlined by the reader as follows:

1. A conclusive inquiry into the subject of income and expenditures among wage earners and others for the essentials of life, and the relation of such expenditures to the savings, investments and accumulations for self-support in old age;
2. An inquiry into the actual distribution of wealth among wage earners in representative industrial cities to ascertain the extent to which periodical or systematic deductions are made from weekly income for purposes of permanent savings and investment as security against dependence in old age;
3. A qualified statistical inquiry into the essential details of savings banks' accumulations to determine how far such accumulations are really the deposits of wage earners;
4. Inquiry into the entire subject of investments by wage earners and others including the poor or casual laborer to determine whether such investments as are made by the least prosperous element of the population are on the whole best adapted to their needs in combining the essential of absolute security with a fair degree of remunerative return;
5. A comprehensive investigation into the relation of preventible diseases to poverty in general, and in particular to dependence in old age. This investigation should emphasize the cost and economic consequences of preventible sickness;
6. Industrial accidents, the cause of their frequency and the most practical method of prevention; particularly such accidents as occur in disproportionate numbers among men employed in mining or railroads, in shipping, building operations, etc.;
7. The most practical method and means of procuring suitable employment for persons injured, crippled or otherwise impaired in physical efficiency in consequence of their occupation;
8. The subject of mortality and morbidity with special reference to wage earners and their families, including the poor and the pauper class, the object being to determine how far the incident of premature mortality falls upon this element because of its poverty,

and to determine the most practical means by which such mortality, both in infancy or old age, may be substantially reduced to the normal rate prevailing among economically better situated elements of the population;

9. An inquiry as to the frequency of suicide. The reader's thought in this connection was that suicide is very largely a preventible condition, it being pointed out that such action was frequently the result of visual defects, eye strain, etc.;
10. The subject of physical deterioration in relation to the increasing proportion of population residing under urban conditions.

The reader recognized that the task of investigating any one of these problems was sufficient to cause private enterprise to question its ability to carry out the undertaking, but insisted that such investigations were not properly the subject of government concern. The government should confine itself to economic investigations leaving for the field of private enterprise the problems outlined above.

In the course of the discussion it was pointed out by Prof. Giddings that many of the points mentioned by the reader were impossible of solution at the present moment, due to the fact that the biological sciences had not to date given us a satisfactory answer as to the relation of heredity to economic environment. For this reason it was impossible to standardize the effect of economic conditions upon the class of persons investigated, and until then the work would be necessarily curtailed. Subsequent discussion pointed out that should the statistician await this result his labors would not begin for decades; that it was wholly within his realm to present such facts as were capable of enumeration, comparison and deduction. The relation of the American Statistical Association to the field of social research was clearly stated by Mr. Koren, who expressed the hope that the publications of the American Statistical Association would in the future, as had been the attempt in the past, point out the way and make known the results obtained to date by various investigators in the present field of social research, and that through this medium, conference and discussion, a basis might be obtained for satisfactory investigations along the lines pointed out in the paper.

The Conference at Richmond

Edward T. Devine

The Richmond conference takes high rank among the national conferences of which it is the thirty-fifth. For the first time, its president has been of the Roman Catholic faith. The selection of Thomas M. Mulry for this responsible and honorable position was not in the nature of a concession to the charitable and reformatory institutions of that communion, as no such selection should be. It was rather a well-deserved recognition of personal fitness, an expression of appreciation for his services in bringing into sympathetic and effective co-operation charitable agencies and movements which in former years in his own state of New York and throughout the country were divided, mutually jealous and even antagonistic, and of appreciation also for the whole hearted devotion of a life time on his own part to innumerable charities and uplifting enterprises in which his participation has been of the greatest positive value.

Equally obvious are the good results of the policy which has only this year come into full operation of having practically the full time and energy of an effective general secretary throughout the year, so that vastly more personal attention may be given to the building up of the membership of the conference, the adequate presentation of its claims at all kinds of public meetings in the several states, through the press and otherwise, and to the details of the actual program of the conference itself. Alexander Johnson, the present general secretary, performs these duties admirably, edits the *Proceedings of the Conference*, makes an increasingly favorable financial showing, and has time left to prepare the invaluable Guide and the Cumulative Index to the volumes of *Proceedings of the Conference* which have made them available for reference and study.

Never has a city in which the conference has met shown a more hospitable spirit, although, as is entirely fitting, the conference has preferred not to allow its serious purpose to be endangered by too



ERNEST P. BICKNELL, CHICAGO

President of the 1909 Conference at Buffalo

frequent interruptions for social diversion. The eloquent and stirring address of welcome by Governor Swanson at the opening meeting, and the briefer but equally sincere and unaffected address by Mayor McCarthy sufficiently voiced the spirit in which the Old Dominion and the historic city of Richmond welcomes such a gathering; and in the most cordial manner conceivable individual delegates were welcomed to public institutions, clubs, churches and private residences. Special recognition is due to George B. Davis, through whose efforts in preceding conferences, the choice of Richmond as a place of meeting was secured, to Robert A. Lancaster, Jr., chairman, R. S. Tuck, secretary, and the other members of the local committee of arrangements, who according to the expert testimony of the general secretary did their work in an absolutely ideal way.

President Mulry's address dwelt, as might have been anticipated, on the fundamental value of charity itself, of the spirit of co-operation, and of religious faith and consecration, and contained a vigorous summons to all who come into contact with the poor to combat the apparently rising tide of anarchism, and of those socialistic teachings which tend to undermine charity, and religion and good citizenship. Referring to the conditions of thirty-five years ago in contrast with those of to-day, Mr. Mulry said:

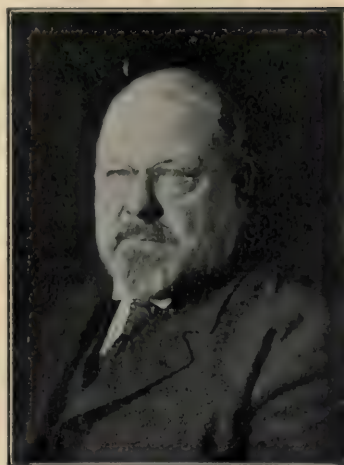
On every side glaring abuses existed, many institutions, both public and private, were being managed not only with shocking laxity, but tolerated the existence of evil conditions, whose mere recital would be most repulsive.

People apparently were so closely wedded to cramped notions relative to the treatment of destitution and crime that co-operation, or even the possibility of meeting on a common ground to discuss peaceably the subject, appeared absolutely hopeless. In fact, each individual was so bound up in his own ideas, in his own systems, in the working out of his own pet schemes, that it would appear that nothing short of a miracle would ever succeed in persuading him to unite with others and bury self in an effort to arrive at some proper solution of the many vexed problems. In addition, religious prejudices played a large part in making the conditions even more complicated.

Yet the almost impossible task has been successfully completed, and that which, in the early days, seemed impracticable and impossible of fulfilment, has been accomplished. The miracle has been worked and co-operation, hearty and universal, is now a living truth, an accomplished fact, a shining example of true brotherly love, a beautiful instance of self-sacrifice and a glowing tribute to the sagacity of those responsible for the creation of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Look about you this evening, cast your eyes over this large gathering, made up of representatives of every phase of charitable and correctional work, and you will undoubtedly bear willing testimony that co-operation in charity work is possible, and that a debt of gratitude is due the founders of this grand and good work. They builded better than they knew, and their labors have not been in vain.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction has become a wonderful power for good. To many it may seem somewhat difficult to understand how it wields such influence in the field of charity. It has no power of direction, no legislative body has conferred upon it the authority to create



ALEXANDER JOHNSON, INDIANAPOLIS

Secretary of the Conference

or destroy, yet it has wielded a tremendous influence in the battle for the betterment of social conditions. To those who have followed its course, who have attended the sessions of its annual meetings, it is well known that its influence is a moral one, appealing to all that is elevating in man and woman. By the exercise of this influence, coupled with that spirit of fair play, so characteristic of the American people as a whole, the National Conference of Charities and Correction has convinced most thoroughly the citizens of our country that it stands for all that is good, and all that is just, and that its powerful influence is exerted solely for the social uplifting of the unfortunate.

If charity has any meaning it should teach us to be tolerant and considerate, to respect the opinions of those who may differ with us in the prosecution of any work of charity. Therefore, remembering this, let it be our aim and ambition, when viewing the work of others, to take all that is good, eliminating that which is bad and evolve therefrom a magnificent whole, which will be a source of benefit to those for whose benefit we are gathered here to-night. Imbued with such ideas, charity workers must of necessity work together, and working together side by side, accomplish much for the good of the poor and their country.

The distinctive feature of the Richmond conference has been its exceptionally fine series of section meetings. All general sessions of the conference were held in the evening, and the mornings were devoted entirely to section meetings, each section being allowed to arrange as

many meetings as the chairman and committee in charge desired. When a few years ago the various committees on children were condensed into a single section, the chairman naturally requested two or three general sessions on the ground that several earlier committees had been combined into one. The justice of this claim was recognized, and until this year that committee has had two general sessions. The executive committee of the conference this year decided to insist that each committee should have but one general session, taking the ground that the object of merging the various committees had been to reduce the number of sessions rather than to increase the work of a single committee. At the same time each section was to have a room at its own disposal and to have a clear right of way in that room from ten o'clock every morning until the hour of the evening sessions, arranging for as many adjourned meetings as those in attendance might desire.

The results have fully justified the new plan. At the general sessions subjects have been presented in which the entire conference is interested, and the section meetings have been as interesting to the large numbers attending them as able speakers, ample time for discussion and a carefully planned program could make them. The sections on children, on families in their homes, and on state supervision were notably interesting and fruitful, and there was an unexpectedly large attendance and keenness of interest in the special morning sessions of the committee on statistics and committee on publicity.

Possibly because it is comparatively a new comer in the conference the general session arranged by the committee on public health proved especially attractive. The addresses by Dr. H. W. Wiley of the Department of Agriculture and of Rev. Beverley E. Warner of New Orleans were among the most notable to which the conference has listened, and the report of Dr. Walter Lindley, chairman of the committee, was incisive and convincing. A more complete statement of the work of this committee will appear in a later issue of this magazine.

An able conference sermon was delivered on Sunday afternoon by Rev. M. Ashby Jones of Columbus, Ga. His subject was *Jesus Revealed in the Work of the Conference*.

A number of meetings not directly of the conference, but inspired by its sessions and its members, were fraught with much of both local and national significance. The Exhibit of Congestion of Population, for instance, led to a special meeting on city planning called by the executive secretary, Benjamin C. Marsh, and quite stirred up Richmond people through photographs of local conditions and talks on them which Mr. Marsh added to his New York material. There was a large and enthusiastic meeting to consider a juvenile court following a visit by delegates to the Police Court of Richmond and a start was made toward a co-operative creamery in a nearby village. On the national side there was a stirring meeting of the charity organization societies composing the Field Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, a meeting of the directors and associate directors of the four schools of philanthropy, and a meeting to consider Red Cross matters.

Needy Families, Their Homes and Neighborhoods

Francis H. McLean

The experiment of larger development of the sectional meetings both formal and informal, was a distinct success so far as the Committee on Needy Families, Their Homes and Neighborhoods was concerned. It is safe to say that viewed from the intensive side the committee's program was exceedingly productive. There was considerable regret expressed that the members could not attend more of the meetings of the important and closely allied committees on children and public health. It is to be hoped that the executive committee of next year may be able to find a means of more closely co-ordinating this com-

mittee with at least the committee on children.

It must not be imagined, however, that because the committee on families had its own separate meeting place, committee rooms and exhibits that it narrowed. On the contrary the range of its program was considerable. For the first time rural development was presented to the national conference. Then too northern workers and many southern ones obtained their first clear picture of the remarkable mountain folk of Tennessee and Kentucky and North Carolina, who against desperate odds are fighting towards a better developed community life.

If one were to define the note of these committee meetings it would be, toleration. Individual and social problems were alike considered. No attempt was made to minimize the one or the other, but rather to consider them as integral parts of the one same great problem, the enrichment of human life. So from the intelligent use of record cards to a propaganda for rural development; in them all was the same purpose, the same importance, the same morality.

THE MOUNTAIN FOLK

If there was doubt in the minds of any present as to the propriety of considering Social Work in the Isolated Mountain Communities of the South in a section meeting devoted to needy families, it had entirely disappeared long before the close of the portrayal of the needs of these families by Miss Katherine Petit of the W. C. T. U. Settlement, Hindman, Ky. These hardy mountaineers, descendants of the best blood that ever came to America; born and bred in the narrow, secluded mountain valleys; isolated from school, church, social intercourse, and all knowledge of outside progress; prohibited by the size of their families and the necessary daily struggle for bread from opportunity to remove elsewhere; these 50,000 people are today living and conversing after the manner of three centuries ago, but with latent mental powers equal to the best in the

world, and a hungering after knowledge that would be most pathetic were it not exceeded by the monotony of their lives. One hundred and sixty-seven church missions, settlements, and schools are working to bring in the light, but those so reached are comparatively few.

In discussing this situation, Bruce R. Payne, professor of secondary education, University of Virginia, pointed out three defects in the present work being done in the mountains, and suggested certain remedies.

First, there is lack of co-operation between the workers and promoters of these isolated stations in the mountains. Each denomination has its mission settlements; sometimes several denominations are within the same mountain cove or valley; frequently they are not on speaking terms, to say nothing of their holding business or educational conferences.

Second, there is lack of correlation of the enterprises with existing permanently organized institutions, especially state systems of education, state boards of charities, state boards of health, etc. If the mountain work is to be made permanent or efficient there must be a closer correlation between each such settlement and the state school systems. These two forces are too shy of each other. A closer acquaintance would be mutually beneficial. On the other hand the missionary must be willing to learn and yield for the sake of better organization. He must be a missionary to the public official as well as to the settlers. There should be discovered an intermediating agency between the two in order that the official may become enlightened as to better ways of working, and the missionary as to better organization looking to the spread of his influence and the permanence of his results.

Third, there is lack of expert study of the entire social, industrial, educational and religious problems peculiar to mountain peoples in isolated communities. We can never organize these undertakings so as to escape the leakage so prevalent until a larger group of men study the questions both indirectly and comparatively. Why should the universities neglect the study of the social problems in the mountain settlements, more than in the city settlements?

The trained expert could free this entire question from a sort of sickly sentimentality which too often does the cause more harm than good. There are men of business sense who are alienated from the movement by a certain type of sentiment which does not appeal to them. Too often the advocate by the lack of expert ability estranges his friends rather than attaches them to his work.

Holding that the present condition results in waste of educational, religious, and economic energy, he claimed that all waste is due to isolation of some sort, and that the only cure for isolation is administrative organization and co-operation.

"If we are to permanently relieve the barrenness of the lives of these mountaineers, it must be through industrial education," said P. P. Claxton, professor of secondary education, University of Tennessee, who has spent a great deal of time among them. He pointed out two ways in which this might be done. First, by maintaining a number of schools which would present short agricultural courses adapted to the needs of the people; and second, by helping the people to build up their high schools. He would like to see a \$1,000 for a few years given to the schools in the small towns on condition that the townspeople raise a like amount,—this money to be used in employing teachers of home economics and industrial training. He maintained that \$400,000 per year for fifteen years spent in the two ways suggested, would revolutionize the mountain regions, solve the problem, and give a return of \$50,000,000 annually from the great natural resources of this region, now untouched.

THE CHURCH AND THE HOME

At the general session the report of the committee was presented by the chairman, Mrs. John M. Glenn, the theme being *The Working Force of Organized Charity*. This report, which may be obtained in printed form, contained an especially strong plea by Mrs. Glenn as a southern woman to the south for more recruits for the army of social reform. That there was the wealth of material to use which had been so little drawn upon, was the theme of an earnest and splendid and spirited message. Summarizing other portions of the report there was general consensus of opinion that the working force was constantly growing finer in grain, that slowly the public was appreciating more the value of service and were becoming gradually more willing to pay for the best service

adequately. On the side of preliminary training of new paid workers before they are entrusted with treatment responsibility there is plainly need for more intelligent planning. The evil of overworking, too, had not yet been abated.

The theme of the addresses of the evening was *The Church and The Home*. The paper of Herbert Welch, president of the Ohio Wesleyan University and president of the Methodist Federation for Social Service, was a convincing argument for the participation of the church member, as such in social work. Slowly there was growing up a conception of life as all sacred. "If it is Christian to cure it is Christian to prevent. If it is Christian to cure children's diseases it is Christian to provide clean streets. A sanitary inspector may be as religious as a church visitor." These were the concepts which were permeating the Christian world. And in this new movement it should be the province of the church not to build up new agencies but to align themselves with existing agencies and at the same time furnish its own distinct contribution in the maintenance of idealism. Its highest ideal would be such a civic expansion of religion that the whole city would be one great religious body and so the church would find no need for its own existence as a separate institution, its mission having been fulfilled.

Rev. W. J. Kerby, professor of sociology in the Catholic University at Washington, D. C., speaking upon the theme of *Self Help in the Home* presented the idea of competition among poor families as a force to be used for better house keeping, prizes of furniture, etc., to be offered to those who showed the most marked improvement in a given space of time. While Father Kerby's plan, which he frankly stated he had brought to the conference because he thought he would speak before a smaller audience and so it could be threshed out, will require much further consideration, what he said, in the first part of his paper was most vital and trenchant. In a family which has lost its common hopes for the future, disintegration has set in. Until the social worker has grouped the family

again around some common hopes or ambitions of the future, the disintegration will continue. It will not do to provide this or that member with individual hopes but the family group must have its common hopes, its renewed sense of solidarity.

Following Professor Kerby, Miss Mary E. Richmond still further described the true family in her address on *The Family and the Social Worker*. No influence in this world so shaped our destinies, our habits, our whole life as the family. It was the ultimate unit and no social philosophy which belittled it was true. Any social work which weakened the ties, which disintegrated the family was fatally wrong. Yet it should not be forgotten that when one gives assent to this old truism it does not mean that for a single instant we should suffer sham families to remain together,—sham families, where every influence was itself towards disintegration, with no hope of a change. These should be mercilessly dissipated. And coming to a practical touch-stone could it not be said that the sham could be separated from the real in this manner; that in any group where the children cannot possibly be conserved to be themselves adequate heads of families, that there is no true family. In all this never forgetting that the family is not a nurturing place for human bodies but a cradle for immortal souls.

UNEMPLOYMENT

In recognition of the fact that the serious problem of the winter for the charity organization societies has been that of dealing with the unemployed, the second section meeting was devoted to a discussion of the limitations of charity in dealing with this situation. The paper was presented by Porter Lee, secretary of the Buffalo society. His first emphasis was on the fact that while the dominant note of modern philanthropy is the effort to remove the cause of poverty, lack of employment due to industrial depression is produced by economic-political factors which charity workers cannot hope to remove unaided. One important service they can render, however, is to

make clear to the community the extent and seriousness of the problem.

Leaving out this question there are certain limitations in dealing with individual family problems, among them the difficulty of making thorough investigations, owing to the pressure of work and also the doubtful wisdom of giving adequate relief to able bodied men. He also mentioned the difficulty of reaching the self respecting working man to whom an application for relief was a severe humiliation and the need of so ordering our methods of work as to avoid creating this sentiment. Mr. Lee closed with a plea for a careful study of the situation which should help to prepare for future emergencies and expressed the belief that in helping to do this and in the work of relieving immediate necessities the societies had done a valuable work this winter. The discussion was opened by Miss Margaret F. Byington of the Pittsburgh Survey who told of the conditions existing in communities where there are no relief societies or poorly developed ones but where the burden of the industrial depression was keenly felt. Hastily organized relief societies are springing up to meet the unusual need but with neither experience or any standards of sane relief work are frequently doing harm as well as good. This is especially true of the tendency to give inadequate relief which alike lowers the families' existing standards and also tends to foster in their minds a sense of injustice. Miss Byington expressed a conviction that an effort should be made to extend a knowledge of methods and spirit of philanthropic work in the smaller communities.

An important contribution to the discussion was from Ernest P. Bicknell of Chicago who told of efforts in that city to make work for the unemployed heads of families who would have been obliged to receive relief in some form. He emphasized the difficulties in the way of starting public works as a means of furnishing such employment. Chief among them the fact that the average workman is not physically fit for heavy out of door work. In spite of the willingness of many to attempt it they prove inefficient and the amount they can ac-

comply is not sufficient to justify paying a normal wage. It was found possible in Chicago to find a limited amount of useful indoor work which could be done by such men but it is hardly a feasible means of meeting the situation as a whole.

J. M. Hanson of Youngstown and Charles S. Grout of Indianapolis told of the efforts in their cities to secure employment in some form.

THE RIGHTS OF NEEDY FAMILIES

It is painstaking care of details which is the foundation of the successes of even the genius. It was this old lesson which was re-emphasized in the first section meeting of the committee on needy families, their homes and neighborhoods. The subject was *How May We Increase Our Standards of Efficiency in Dealing With Needy Families*, the paper being presented by the writer. The paper presented in general the results of a survey of case records received from a large number of societies. Instead of dealing with questions of treatment as such, the writer endeavored to present the morality of thorough investigations as a preliminary to any decent work thereafter. And this not as a matter of scientific charity but of morality and honesty on the part of the charity worker. The need of building upon facts rather than impressions, of covering primary sources of information in preference to secondary sources, the need of giving definiteness as the treatment is shaped, the need of clearly objectionizing the main problem as well as the minor problems, these were indicated as the basic moralities which must be considered and without which all treatment is nothing short of a miserable lottery. To some of the societies the very clear issue of a good record could well be made out and intelligently used, was presented as a piece of objective morality, whose absence, excepting in the case of extreme emergencies, should demand an explanation. In illustration of what the other course met, illustrations were given of the inhumanities of not visiting relatives when it was possible to do so. It was

asked whether any case could be considered as being investigated at all where employers, school teachers and relatives, at least, had not been seen. Upon the points of definiteness and concrete problems the use of the diagnosis and treatment sheets was strongly urged. At the request of a number of people the whole paper will be reproduced in the June number of *The Bulletin* of the Field Department.

In the discussion which followed it may be said that the synthesis of the heart and head in the treatment of families was most sharply portrayed. Not scientific charity but the utter impossibility of separating heart and head, the crude absurdity of imagining the heart as disassociated from the deepest mental processes, this perhaps was the moral of the discussion. Miss Zilpha D. Smith made a telling point in her statement that we must consider other charity workers as secondary, not primary, sources of information. Miss Ida A. Green of Washington, suggested the advisability of marginal annotations in the margins which would indicate what was valuable and what not. In speaking of developing the art of discrimination. Miss Richmond said that before one attempted that, one must know all of the rules of the game, know how it is played. It is only those who do this who will be able to discriminate rightly. Learn all of the rules if you wish ever to break any of them.

Owing to lack of space the very important meeting which considered the question of Rural Development, will be described in a later issue, so that it may be dealt with adequately.

INFORMAL MEETINGS

Two informal meetings were arranged. At one there was a colloquy over the treatment of a few individual cases. At the other a question box was opened, which led to a most interesting session of two hours. Because of the separate headquarters the ease with which smaller conferences could be arranged was considerably increased. Mrs. Glenn, the chairman of the committee, also announced a number of office hours,

when from one to four experienced workers, appointed beforehand, were on hand to advise with the less experienced. This proved to be a distinctly valuable feature.

In the reciprocity room there was also installed an exhibit of charity organization methods of work. The exhibit was crude in many particulars but there was a formal request for its continuance and improvement. The exhibit was prepared for the Field Department by Porter R. Lee.

In the room set apart for settlement workers there was a most interesting exhibit of the fireside industries of the southern mountain folk.

A REQUEST TO DROP "NEEDY"

At a meeting of the executive heads of charity organization societies called to consider certain matters with reference to the Field Department it was voted that a formal request be sent to the executive committee of the National Conference to change the name of the committee so that it should read simply, Committee on Families.

Children's Meetings at the National Conference of Charities

Helen Glenn

Those who attended the children's meetings of the National Conference of Charities were impressed by three things: the unity and completeness of the program; the wisdom shown in the choice of speakers, who were not only experts in their own line of work but who saw its close relation to all other charity work; and finally the large and enthusiastic audiences that were the result of these two first conditions. It is said that never before has so much interest been shown in this session, nor so much of practical benefit in all lines of children's work been offered. This was due largely to the chairman, Miss Curtis, of Boston.

In opening the session of the conference dealing with children's work, Miss

Curtis, said that the great need in that line is the correlation of all child-training to the needs of the child in after life; that work among children differs from much charity work, in that it aims to be a provision for the future, and that only in so far as we eliminate the useless and incidental from our educational system and provide training that will prepare the child for citizenship and home making, do we fulfill our highest ideal.

The subject of the meeting was: What makes the education of a child? And an interesting fact about the opening session was that four judges of the juvenile court from widely distant states were present and contributed to the discussion.

Judge Mack of Chicago set forth the fundamental elements of juvenile court work and briefly reviewed its history. He showed that its chief aim is to discover the causes of the child's delinquency, and then as far as possible to eradicate the evil effects on the child. In this training of citizens Judge Mack closely related the juvenile court to institution work, preventive work, in fact to all organized charity whose aim is to train the citizens of the future. The child must be considered a ward, and the most precious responsibility of the state.

The most vital part of this work, Judge Mack believes, is done not by the judge, but by the probation officer, who acts as an educator rather than a guard, and whose duty it is through thorough investigation of home conditions, and study of the child, to aid the child in its development along lines of good citizenship. In connection with the juvenile court, there should be a medical department to examine the child thoroughly for adenoids, poor sight, nervousness, etc., and to see that his truancy, for example, is not due, as is so often the case, to any of these causes. Since the greatest work of philanthropy is preventive and constructive, the probation work must be correlated with such work as the playground organization and the work of the juvenile protective leagues. In short, the dominant note of Judge

Mack's address was the importance of all preventive work.

Judge DeLacy of Washington, opened the discussion after the address of Judge Mack. He spoke a word of warning against sentimentality in dealing with children stating that besides all the victims of the neglect and vice of others who are so constantly brought to the juvenile court, there are a few children with real criminal tendencies that must be watched for and guarded against.

Judge Peters of Louisville emphasized the fact that co-operation between the judge and the community is absolutely necessary in order that really effective work may be done; and Judge Adams of Cleveland then told how they enlist the services of the firemen as probation officers, and how splendidly the plan works, in that city.

On the following day Mrs. Martha P. Falconer of Philadelphia, led the discussion on children in institutions from the point of view of their preparation for good citizens and home makers. She confined her attention entirely to girls. Mrs. Falconer emphasized the danger of an institution falling into the habit of doing things "the easiest way," to the great injury of the child. An institution can be too clean, if to that cleanliness the training of the child has been sacrificed. Then too, in order to do the most efficient work in reforming a child, thorough examination should be made upon her entrance into the institution in order that diseases of the skin, eyes, etc., may be cured.

Although many people believe that self-government can be carried on only, and even with difficulty, in reform schools for boys, the school in Philadelphia is a witness to the fact that it is equally successful among girls, and helps eliminate very largely that much dreaded word "discipline." Most important of all, the girls in such an institution should be kept in touch with the outside world, should know something of woman's interests, such as child labor, compulsory education, etc. This of course can be accomplished only when the superintendent

and officers themselves have many outside interests.

Miss Berry of Georgia spoke of her work among the mountaineers. Her talk was simple and forceful, setting forth the needs of the people and dwelling particularly upon the lack of industrial training in the schools in that section of the state.

Those who doubt whether statistics are ever interesting and impressive, should have heard the address of Mrs. Bowen of Chicago when the children's section met on Saturday, May 9. Mrs. Bowen spoke on the work of the Juvenile Protective League of Chicago. This association was formed about a year ago to study the causes of delinquency, and is supported entirely by voluntary contributions. An attorney is in charge of the work assisted by several agents who make investigations under his direction. Through its efforts all the five cent theaters in Chicago have been made unobjectionable, many successful prosecutions have been brought against dealers in cocaine and those who sell tobacco to minors; libraries have been started in the rooms where boys wait to carry special delivery letters; dance halls have been regulated and co-operation secured from the mayor, police officials, etc., to help enforce the laws.

In speaking on the subject of children's playgrounds, Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, showed how universal and natural is the instinct of play: that in former times nations made almost no provision to satisfy it; and how this instinct, beneficial in itself, may be traded upon by those who are mercenary, if not vicious. Cheap dance halls and pool rooms, are filled with boys and girls seeking an outlet for this natural desire for pleasure. It is to meet this need that out-door playgrounds, boys' clubs, etc., are being organized by various associations all over the country. C. C. Carstens of Boston then opened the discussion, describing briefly the work of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, and showed how closely delinquency is related to the conduct of the parents.

It was something of a departure from the usual custom to hold a meeting of the conference on Sunday evening. That it was a great success was shown by the fact that a large church was crowded with people, many of them standing the entire evening and that the greatest enthusiasm was shown by those present.

Professor W. H. Hand of the University of South Carolina emphasized strongly the need of compulsory education laws in many of the southern states, laying the blame for the illiteracy of so many of the children to the lack of this law. He made the startling statement that Negro children in the South are being better cared for along educational lines than those who are white.

Miss Jean Gordon, factory inspector of New Orleans, speaking of factory inspection, emphasized the same fact, that the bad conditions of illiteracy and child labor in the South cannot be changed until compulsory education laws have been passed.

She said too that the public school system is much to blame for the existence of child labor. The present system does not keep the child's interest in the school. The school rooms are overcrowded and no adequate provision is made for the large number of children who are defective and who cannot keep up with their classes. Such children soon become discouraged and leave school. Sometimes the teacher even encourages them to leave, as they hold back the class as a whole by their presence. For these children special classes should be started. Miss Gordon believes that the south must have industrial education, in order to interest and so to hold the children in the schools.

On the subject Child Labor and Education Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, said that to get the best results the schools must be modified in order to prepare more fully for the duties of life. Educational methods have not made a corresponding change in relation to the great industrial advancement of the nation. The schools must be socialized and humanized. Miss Addams also discussed the value of manual training,

showing how it prepares the boy for his later work, whether in or outside of a factory.

At the meeting on children in families not their own, Charles W. Birtwell, general superintendent of the Children's Aid Society of Boston spoke on the question are these homes preparatory schools of life also? Mr. Birtwell said that only in the home can the factors be found which prepare a child for the natural and normal life. He spoke of the lessons of health that the child learns at the breakfast table; of how the stories of the failures and successes of others unconsciously influence him; of how home love leads to the development of moral character and how as a whole the conditions of normal home life tend to prepare the child for citizenship and for life in a home of its own.

Mr. Birtwell laid special stress upon the necessity of careful selection of the homes; and of supervision of the children afterwards. He also brought out the dangers of placing children in family homes, unless it is done with the utmost care. He dwelt upon the great responsibility assumed in placing children and explained later in the discussion how the Boston Children's Aid Society tries to do its work.

J. L. Kelso of Toronto, Canada, stated that the conditions of the city child had been perhaps too much emphasized, and that the welfare of children in the country should also be discussed. He spoke of the work in Canada, how children defective physically are gathered into hospitals in order that their defects may be corrected. Representing a great government system, he brought out the humanitarian side of the work, and certainly exemplified the fact that a government can deal with a large number of children and do it well, when the right kind of agent is at the head. The effort is to keep children in the homes in which they have been placed, and he added that the method might be summed up in three words, love, praise and trust.

Dr. H. H. Hart of Chicago spoke of the importance of the personal examination of homes by paid agents, declaring

that the placing of a child in a home not its own is one of the greatest responsibilities that a state has to bear.

It was a surprise to many that a worker from Cincinnati should have explained in detail methods that were abandoned by the best workers many years ago, of taking little children in groups into villages and exhibiting them in churches. This aroused a good deal of criticism and vigorous protest.

Throughout these meetings the very greatest emphasis was laid on preventive work; and all felt that many interests had been considered and the work presented in a broad and comprehensive way.

State Supervision

Charles P. Kellogg

The sessions of the National Conference of Charities and Correction which were held this year under the direction of the committee on state supervision surpassed in interest any that have been devoted to this subject at the conferences in recent years. Although the general session and the two section meetings assigned to this committee were held on the last two days of the conference, they were well attended to the close.

At the first section meeting the principal addresses were made by Alexander Johnson, general secretary of the conference and formerly secretary of the Board of State Charities of Indiana, who spoke upon Experiences in Inspection, and by R. W. Hill, secretary of the New York State Board of Charities, who took for his subject The New York System of Inspection.

Mr. Johnson stated that inspection and detection are quite different matters. There must be inspection from the inside outward, not detection from the outside inward. In inspection it is important to get at the spirit of the management of an institution. The confidence of the superintendent must be won generally by fair-minded treatment, making allowance for the difficulties he encounters, and telling him the truth, but in love. The confidence of the public must be won by doing one's work faithfully and well, by making one's self useful. The price of success in

leadership is usefulness. Also, let the people know it. The best friend of a state board is the reporter, and good items of news should always be kept on file to give to him, not, of course, all of the board's knowledge of the institution's affairs, but real, live items. Never, however, say anything that you are not sure of. The inspector often becomes the best friend of an institution by disproving false charges brought against it. If anything is happening in charities, be on the spot, attend meetings of institutions, public and private, and make a speech; and, furthermore, collect a good library of reports and make it useful to the public. Mr. Johnson's address was illuminated by many interesting stories of his experiences in inspection in Indiana, and he gave much useful advice to inspectors of state boards.

Under a clause of the constitution of New York which gives to the State Board of Charities the right to inspect all charitable and reformatory institutions, both public and private, Mr. Hill showed that the New York system of inspection is based upon authority. The constitutional authority is the warrant under which the inspector has a right to visit an institution and to ask to see what is going on there. It constitutes a wide power which, unless wisely used, may effect great injury. The inspector must not only gain the friendship of an institution's superintendent, but he must also be wise in helping to solve the problems that confront the institution. When one takes up the vast system covered by private charity, inspection, to be just, must consider both the rights of the state and of those for whom the charity is trying to provide. The annual meetings of county superintendents of the poor in New York state furnish a valuable factor in inspection. There the inspector meets the officials he has been visiting, there the spirit of frankness prevails, and there the inspector may often find himself dissected. The rules of the New York State Board of Charities require that careful reports of visits of inspection be made to the board, and a copy is afterwards sent to the superintendent of the institution visited, with suggestions for betterment.

Great improvements have been made in the condition of institutions in the state of New York within the last twenty-five years, and there is reason to believe that the system of inspection by the state board has aided materially in pointing out ideals for the institutions and in working with the institutions to accomplish the desired ends.

The discussion which followed these two addresses was opened by Mornay Williams, president of the New York Children's Village, at Dobbs Ferry, and was participated in by Mr. Gates of California, Mr. Butler of Indiana, Mr. Whitehouse of Maine, and others. The subject of inspection was declared to be one of the greatest interest to state boards, and the necessity was shown for inspection by the state of all charitable and correctional institutions, both public and private, not only for the protection of their inmates, but also for the benefit of the tax-payers. The board of management of an institution represents the state government, while the state board, with its powers of inspection and recommendation, represents the people who cannot inspect for themselves. The desirability of having women as members of state boards was highly endorsed by some of the speakers. A declaration was made of the right of inmates of institutions to communicate under seal with the members of state boards, and also to talk alone with them on the occasion of their visits without the presence of an officer, which often deters an inmate from speaking freely. In Indiana it was said to be customary for the representative of the state board to visit the cell houses in the prisons in the evening and to talk with each prisoner alone at his cell door.

The second section meeting under the direction of the committee was devoted to the consideration of Migration of Dependents and Defectives and the Importance of Interstate Comity and Co-operation, and the principal speakers were H. H. Shirer, secretary of the Ohio Board of State Charities, and George S. Wilson, secretary of the Board of Charities of the District of Columbia. Mr. Shirer's paper discussed the difficulties encountered in collecting money expended for the trans-

portation or care of dependents and defectives who have wandered from the state, county or town of their legal residence. Mr. Shirer concluded with several important suggestions, among which was one that the conference recommend that the states adopt legislation similar to the law of Minnesota vesting in some state commission of lunacy, board of charity or board of control the power to deal with interstate cases and to enter into reciprocity agreements.

Mr. Wilson stated that the Board of Charities in the District of Columbia is authorized by act of Congress to deport non-resident dependents and defectives to their place of residence, but difficulty is encountered many times in determining the legal residence. A question was raised as to the authority of Congress to legislate between the states in regard to the settlement of paupers, and in reply Mr. Gates of California stated that at the National Conference of Charities at Cincinnati in 1899, it was declared that Congress had no such power.

In the discussion that followed Mr. Wilson's address, Miss Lathrop of Illinois called attention to the fact that in too many cases in the transportation of insane persons the subjects are treated like criminals, rather than like afflicted persons. We should get above the sheriff and police station idea in the transportation of the insane.

At the general session of the conference, given to the committee on state supervision, the report of the committee was made by its chairman, Rutherford H. Platt, of Ohio, and addresses were given by Amos W. Butler, secretary of the State Board of Charities of Indiana, Mrs. Kate Wheeler Barrett, of Alexandria, Va., and by Miss Kate Barnard, commissioner of charities and correction of the state of Oklahoma. Mr. Platt's report treated not so much the question of state supervision as it did the broader subject of intervention by the state in the field of charity. Attention was called to the rapid growth in recent years of charitable institutions and agencies of all sorts, and to the dangers involved in the increasing paternalism of the state in this direction. At times it seems that the only effective

barrier against making of the state a universal Providence is the financial difficulty. By common consent there is a vast scope within the proper province of the state for activities which have for their purpose the promotion of the public welfare, but for the other side of philanthropic work, care for the unfortunate, relief of individual need, all will agree that there must be a limit. The question of state aid for unemployment was dealt with at some length, and mention was made of the disastrous experiment attempted in this direction by the French Republic in 1848. In determining the extent to which the state should enter the field of charitable relief, the inquiry should be: Will the public welfare be promoted, not, is it desirable that individual need be relieved? Justice, not benevolence, is the true function of the state.

Mr. Butler, of Indiana, spoke on The Relation of a State Board to the People, and declared that, as a rule, there is nothing of which the public knows so little as it does of its state institutions. The Board of State Charities is a representative of the people, and has a high duty to perform in reporting to the public what is being done in the institutions. An efficient state board should work through the churches, the teachers' associations and the public press, and should organize an active state conference of charities.

Mrs. Barrett's subject was The Value and Need of State Supervision for both Public and Private Charities, and she treated particularly such supervision in relation to private charities. It was a great wrong, she declared, to grant a charter to any body of men or women for a charitable society who would resent supervision by the state. Private moneys devoted to these purposes must have the protection of state supervision. Mrs. Barrett declared that the new State Board of Charities in Virginia must make good before the next session of the legislature. She closed her address with a pathetic lullaby sung to her as a child by a colored "mammy" the refrain of which was,—

"Bring in de brack sheep,
'An dose date ar' pore an' thin."

Miss Barnard, of Oklahoma, gave an interesting talk on shaping the destinies of a new state, in which she told in an entertaining way the story of what has already been accomplished in that youthful state in the field of charities and correction, and naively narrated her own share in the accomplishment. Statehood came to the people of Oklahoma suddenly, but it is proving a great opportunity. Miss Barnard told of the assistance she received a year ago from leading members of the National Conference and the way in which she presented the subject of the treatment of crime, pauperism and disease to the 1,500,000 inhabitants of Oklahoma. Twenty-four laws were drawn up as planks to be used in the proposed state constitution and were presented first to the joint convention of the Farmers' Union and the Federation of Labor. These measures were successfully incorporated in the constitution and since then important laws have been enacted, giving protection to workers in the mines, providing for compulsory education, with school scholarships for poor children of widowed mothers and disabled fathers, and other progressive legislation. The commissioner of charities and correction in Oklahoma is elected by the people, and is responsible to the people, and the state conference of charities already organized there has sent delegates to the National Conference this year.

The discussion which followed these addresses brought to a close one of the most interesting series of meetings ever held under the auspices of the committee on state supervision in the National Conference.

Section on Defectives

E. R. Johnstone

The work of the section on defectives centered around four main points: First, provision for all classes both feeble-minded and backward; second, the kind of training that should be given; third, permanent custodial care; and fourth, scientific work for the investigation as to causes of this condition and methods of prevention.

In considering the question of provision, great stress was laid upon the fact that the people of any commonwealth must have information concerning these classes. As it now stands, most people do not realize that they have in their midst such a large number of mental deficients. Three points of attack were suggested as most advisable for bringing this matter before the people: first, co-operation with the State Board of Education and public schools. A simple set of questions such as has been used in several states was presented to be distributed by the various superintendents of schools to their teachers and intended to bring to light those children who are either far backward, suffering from sense defects, adenoids, etc., or who have, for any reason, been unable to keep up with the regular work of other children of their age; second, the help of the state medical associations. In this connection medical inspection of public school children particularly was urged and it was advised that medical colleges give their graduates special instruction in the diagnosis of mental deficiency; third, the State Board of Charities and the various charitable organizations of the commonwealth should center their energies upon establishing a state institution to care for the marked cases.

Under the question of proper training, many practical thoughts were brought out by the paper of Mrs. Dunphy of New York. She called special attention to the fact that these children, being permanently deficient, are to be fitted for life in an institution, therefore their training must all be such that they can make practical use of it when they become men and women in years, even though they must always be children in intellect. Various lines of industrial training, farming, dairying, mat, mattress and shoe making, tailoring, dress making, etc., are all easily learned by defectives. Some institutions have well established brick yards, cement block manufactories, etc. The possibilities of music and physical culture were also brought out.

Alexander Johnson, secretary of the conference, spoke upon permanent custody, and showed how necessary it is that

these children be cared for so as to protect society from the wrongs committed by and upon them in their innocence. He reminded the conference that virtue means strength but innocence may be weakness, and that it is not right for society to expect a weakminded girl to combat the forces of evil; permanent custody does not mean imprisonment, but it means that these irresponsible ones may live in comfort and happiness, having all the employment they should have, what entertainment, food and bodily comforts they need, what medical attention is necessary, such moral training as they can understand, and indeed all the pleasures of happy society, excepting the right to marry and to vote at popular elections. The writer called attention to the fact that it is not sufficient for us to provide for those who are knocking at our doors, but some definite steps must be taken to investigate and prevent. We must know why these children are as they are, and the best means of checking the stream. With this in view some of the larger institutions have established departments of research. In these various lines of study are being carried out, anthropometric measurements are being made of thousands of cases. All the institutions of the country are co-operating in this movement. Case histories are being made, following the child from what records can be gotten from the family, through his institution life with attention to details, and finally a careful autopsy is held and microscopic study made of the brain. In several of the states the office of the state board of charities contains careful records of family histories. These show without doubt that a very few families in the first place are producing a large number of the dependents, defectives and delinquents of the commonwealth, and when these records are carefully made we shall be able to judge better how to handle the various cases that appear in our police courts and institutions. When the whole thing is upon a scientific basis, we shall not trust blindly to one man's impulse to do as he will with what is probably a menace to society.

The whole work of the section was laid

along broad lines, and the chairman, Miss Mattie Gundry of Virginia, was most successful in securing a thorough consideration of the subject. Suggestions were practical and of such a character that the work can begin at once. It is encouraging to note that the movement is already on foot to get the facts concerning the number in Virginia from the public schools within two months.

The Insane and Epileptic

Constance D. Leupp

The section began with a visit to the state institution at Petersburg for the care of the Negro insane and epileptic. In his address of welcome, Mr. Bohannon of the board of directors of the institution gave a short sketch of its history. It has the almost unique distinction of being an adequate institution for its state, leaving none of the Negro insane and epileptic in the poor houses and other institutions where they do not belong, as in many states where the state institution itself is more modern in its equipment.

The buildings are very beautifully situated on the hill above the town of Petersburg. In the several dormitories the insane are separated from the epileptic, and the consumptive cases from both. A mile away, there is a farm worked by the patients. The visitor is struck with the fact that there is an absolute lack of the sort of restraints ordinarily associated with the insane. There is not a straight jacket in the institution, and the most violent cases are cared for in small cell-like rooms with doors having no reinforcement to the ordinary lock. It is a peculiarity of the forms of insanity which prevail among the Negroes that they are never very violent, the mania frequently taking the form of an excessive zeal in religious matters. The most strenuous treatment used in violent cases is a hot pack,—a treatment rather like a Turkish bath, for quieting the nerves.

Dr. J. T. Searcy, superintendent of the Hospital for the Insane at Tuscaloosa, Ala., gave the first address at the regular section meeting. His talk was very largely a technical explanation of the psychology of heredity and the possibilities of variations, all tending to show that heredity is a much greater factor than environment in abnormality and that the subject of heredity has never been properly treated. Nations and individuals deteriorate and improve in the same way, and every environment maker ought to be familiar with the phenomena of heredity.

Dr. Ferris of the New York State Commission in Lunacy followed with an account of the way the state of New York copes with the problem of insanity. He gave an account of some very remarkable cases of recovery, one after a period of ten years, and he even cited some cases of general paralysis which had recovered. Twenty-five per cent of the chronic class recover, and authorities on the subject hope in the course of time to see the term "chronic" disappear and be replaced by "protracted," since they are inclined to think that with the progress now being made there will soon be no hopeless cases.

Occupation is the greatest agent in the cure of the insane, and the patients in the New York state institutions manufacture all sorts of articles. Discharged patients are taken in care by the after-care committees whose business it is to get them positions and friends. By the present state law there is a thirty day parole. This can be extended at the request of the patient, and there is now pending before the legislature a bill for a six months' period of parole which will enable the asylums to send out more patients with a greater security.

The last address of the evening by Dr. Drewry of the Virginia State Institution, gave briefly the history of insanity in the state, and told of the new Virginia State Board of Charities, as well as an enumeration of the reasons why there is more insanity now than formerly.

Criminals, Their Punishment and Reformation

W. H. Whittaker

The section of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, organized for the purpose of considering the question of Criminals: Their Punishment and Reformation, had a most successful meeting.

The first meeting of the section was to have been presided over by J. A. Leonard, superintendent of the State Reformatory, Mansfield, O., who was unavoidably detained at home.

His paper was read by Samuel J. Barrows. Mr. Leonard said that

my studies of prison labor problems antedates my experience as prison administrator. These studies and my practical experience both lead me to favor the employment of the inmates of any prison, and more especially reformatory institutions, on the state-use plan, which must include trade schools rather than the contract for their labor on either the per diem or piece price plan.

Mr. Leonard further stated that the dullest young man in prison comprehends more or less clearly the difference between being employed by a contractor and being employed by the state. For the state, young men as a rule work industriously, cheerfully, without complaint as to the character or amount of labor executed. The superintendent of the shop, representing the state can enforce disciplinary methods of the institution with these young men much easier when they are working for the state than if they are being worked upon tasks by contractors.

After the reading of Mr. Leonard's paper very interesting discussions were brought out upon the question of discipline and industries in these institutions, and the committee seemed to be of the unanimous opinion that education, moral instruction and proper employment must be enforced in such institutions if there is going to be any results from the standpoint of turning the boy back to society a better man.

On Friday the subject for discussion at this section was United States Prisoners: Their Punishment and Reforma-

tion. The treatment of this topic was to have been by C. C. McLaughry, deputy warden of the United States Prison, at Atlanta, Ga. He was not present. Very interesting discussions upon the question of employment of United States prisoners was led by Mrs. J. Ellen Foster, who is connected with the Department of Justice in Washington, D. C. Mrs. Foster gave a strong presentation of conditions as found in the jail of the District of Columbia, and her portrayal showed it to be a disgrace to the government. In this jail there are but about 300 cells and crowded into these cells are more than 500 prisoners absolutely with no work. There is not sufficient capacity in the jail yard for exercise. It is very doubtful whether the people of the country realize that prisoners confined by the government are kept in such outrageous quarters. It was the consensus of opinion of the meeting that the government rather than being twenty-five years behind the times, as they are in methods of reformation and handling of the criminal class, should be at the front, and that there should be brought to bear upon Congress such influence as will place the government institutions in the lead.

It was also brought out in the discussion that in two years from now the International Prison Association will hold its session in Washington and that if conditions continue to exist in the District of Columbia jail, as they are now that it will be nothing less than a disgrace for this country to be compelled to show foreign representatives the conditions in which its prisoners are kept.

On Friday evening the general session of this committee was held in old St. Paul's Church. The report of the committee was read by the chairman. The whole tenor of the report of the committee, was that the first object in all our penal and reformatory institutions must be that of reformation. The committee based its report upon the following important suggestions:

1. There should be no punishment for men confined for violation of the law except the denial of liberty.
2. Reformation in penal and reformatory institutions cannot be successful unless there

is a perfect system of moral instruction, and unless all officers, instructors and teachers are living examples of true citizenship.

3. Reformation will not be obtained unless the illiterates are given a common school education under thorough and practical instructors who are free men.

4. The highest degree of reformation will not be obtained in penal and reformatory institutions unless the industry of the inmates be such as to train them in useful trades, which will enable them to better secure useful and remunerative employment after they have been paroled or discharged.

5. Reformation cannot be obtained without education, moral instruction, training in practical shop work, and a thorough understanding of obedience of law.

6. Useful and profitable labor in such institutions is essential to the health of body and mind. Idleness greatly interferes with proper and necessary discipline.

7. The states that do not have a proper indeterminate sentence and parole law are not accomplishing all they should.

8. The after-care of paroled and discharged inmates is just as important in bringing about their redemption as is the attention and care they get while in the institution.

9. It requires time in any reformatory institution to bring to bear upon its inmates the necessity of good citizenship. Therefore, the management that discharges its inmates on parole or otherwise at the end of one year is making a serious mistake. The judgment of this committee is that such inmates should serve from three to five years in order to receive proper discipline, proper moral instruction, proper training in the school of letters, and proper training in shop work, before they are permitted to return to society.

10. No institution can accomplish the best results until it provides the proper means of training its officers in their respective duties. This can best be done in an officers' school, maintained and managed under the direct supervision of the management of the institution.

11. Reformation follows the substitution of worthy ideals for unworthy ones. A library of from 3,000 to 10,000 well selected books is one of the most potent factors in bringing about this substitution. Each inmate should be graded in his reading ability and given only those books that he is able to comprehend. As he is advanced in the school of letters he should likewise be promoted in library privileges.

The committee further stated that there can be no real reformation by merely throwing a man into an institution to serve time unless he is thrown in contact with officers who possess high ideals of life. Unless he is instructed from day to day in a different kind of life than that

which he has been leading in the slums of our cities; unless he can be shown that it is better to earn his money by honest labor than by dishonest and questionable practices; nothing can be gained by confinement in an institution.

The committee further agreed that the trouble with our whole system in the past has been that not only the public in general but those who have had control of such subjects have thought only of their punishment.

In giving its views upon the question of reformation, and how a prisoner should be treated, the committee said that he should be disciplined—which involves all the training in obedience and outward compliance with law and rule which is necessary in civil or prison life; by treatment, which involves physical and mental improvement in matters of health, surgery, medicines, books, pictures, flowers, music; by teaching, which includes mental and moral improvement along lines of knowledge and thought, by kindness, which offers the love of the Master and shows the nature of the good Samaritan, but does not transcend the bounds of reason and pass into the indulgence that invites imposition and fraud, or gives the unworthy that which they do not deserve; by aid, material and spiritual to those who desire, deserve, and seek. Spiritual aid can only come from the Most High, but it may come through his servants; by timely release upon parole—whenever by his striving for real self-betterment his courage and his desire to do better and to be better reach their full flood tide, and before the ebb of discouragement brings him back to the sand and rocks of despair.

The unanimous opinion of the committee was that the states that have no indeterminate sentence and parole law, and the states that do not keep their institutions out of politics, are not doing all that they can in the reformation and protection of their criminal class; and that there are two most important things that await the study of the penologist and which bear directly upon this whole question of criminals: their punishment and reformation. First, there should be in every state a training school for

prison guards and keepers. Second, more study should be given to penitentiary and prison architecture.

Successful penitentiary and prison management, and the turning of the criminal toward reformation cannot be accomplished on theory and enthusiasm and wild experiment. It takes, besides the best education that a man can bring to the problem, first, action and common sense; second, a willingness to learn; third, native tact and shrewdness; fourth, a knowledge of human nature, especially the criminal's habits of thought and action, or an ability to rapidly discover the influences to which such men are subject.

The report of the committee attempted to impress upon the conference the importance of labor in all of our reformatory and penal institutions, and that without practical labor there can be no successful degree of reformation. The greatest helps in the reformation of men in these institutions are those of moral instruction, education and labor. We must have thorough, practical schools for the illiterate; we must have trade schools and workshops that are thorough and practical.

The report of the committee was also unanimous upon the proposition that the products of the labor of the inmates of such institutions must be sold. It was the committee's belief that there should be no contract systems in our state institutions but that the state should work the inmates in trade schools upon the state account or piece price plan and that the product of their labor should first be sold to the state institutions and political divisions of the state, and any surplus left should be placed upon the open market at the market price. The committee contended that any goods placed upon the market at the market price were not coming in contact with labor of any free man, for the reason that the labor of every man, whether in prison or out of it, has a right to be sold. The committee was of the further opinion that the labor people generally are not opposed to reasonable labor being performed in all of these institutions and that the surplus products of these institutions should be sold upon the open market at the market price. Several instances were cited

where the labor people had made investigations of labor conditions in these institutions and went away satisfied with the conditions as they found them, where the goods were not being placed upon the market as second rate goods but where they were being placed upon the open market, equal to similar goods made by free labor.

The committee was also of the unanimous opinion that the contract system should be abolished but they were of the same opinion that there should be substituted by the state, account system or trade schools plan for these unfortunate people. They also believed that labor people of this country were charitable enough and large-hearted enough to admit that this should be done.

On Saturday the question of the building of roads and highways by convict labor was ably discussed by Captain Morgan, warden of the Virginia Penitentiary, and by R. W. Withers, member of the Legislature of Virginia. These two papers brought out some very interesting facts concerning the matter of road building, and every member of the conference who heard them seemed to have a better opinion of this method of employing prisoners.

But after discussion had been had upon the subject by members from several of the states, the opinion seemed to obtain that for the southern states the question of road building by inmates of reformatory and penal institutions might be a practical one, but for the northern states, where a different type of man was found in these institutions, it seemed to be the impression that this would not be a practical thing except for jail and workhouse prisoners. I believe everyone present felt, after hearing the papers and discussion, that men who were serving workhouse and jail sentences, could not be better employed than at building public highways or upon other public work.

It was the unanimous opinion of those present that the jails of the country were hell-holes of the worst type and that every influence should be brought to bear in the different states to see that conditions as they now are in our public jails and workhouses are remedied. They all agreed that a man convicted of crime

should never be retained in a jail for one day. Jails should only be places for confinement of citizens until they have had their trial. If they are found guilty then they should be sent to some suitable work-house where they could get employment.

The question of road building by prisoners seemed to the people of the state of Virginia to be what they want. It was also the general impression of most of the speakers and those who were present that a system that does not provide education for men sent to penal and reformatory institutions, at least to the seventh grade, was deficient and that states who worked their convicts purely for their labor without paying attention to their moral or educational welfare, were not doing their full duty to the prisoner nor to society.

On Wednesday, the last day of the session, a paper was read by Miss Sarah L. Montgomery, of the Indiana Girls' School, Clermont, Indiana, which was very favorably received.

The consensus of opinion in this session as in all other sessions, was that a system should be inaugurated for girls and women of this country in penal and reformatory institutions which will give them education; which will permit them to work at some practical useful labor that will be of benefit to them after they leave the institutions.

I think the meeting was most beneficial upon the question of criminals, their punishment and reformation. More interesting discussions were had and much more advanced thought given by the speakers than it has been the pleasure of those to hear who have been attending these meetings in the past.

Arrangements have been made by the chairman of the committee to have the entire proceedings of this section printed. Copies will be sent to all those who are interested in the subject and who were at the meeting in Richmond.

The Committee on Statistics

John Koren

So far, each meeting of the section on statistics has exemplified the remark made by General Francis A. Walker years ago that "the American people

are intensely and passionately devoted to statistics." At Richmond also the attendance was large, the papers were followed with close attention, and it would have been easy to prolong the lively discussions beyond the allotted hour.

Since the organization of the conference the statistical activity concerned with matters of charities and correction has never been so great as at present. It therefore seemed timely to the committee to sound a warning against a loose and ill considered application of the statistical method to social problems. The woods are full of amateur investigators who rush at any problem, no matter how large, and apply their little statistical measurement or analysis; and the knowledge of the world is not often enriched by their efforts. Rather the science of statistics and research is being brought into discredit. It was emphasized in the committee report that the incompetency of much of the social statistics resulting from present day research is due, among other causes, to the lack of original records which should furnish the necessary facts. If records are at hand, they are often so changed from year to year that comparisons are impossible. In other words, the point of interest shifts from time to time and cannot always be anticipated. Even the experienced searcher after facts is frequently brought to a sudden halt because he finds the sources of social statistics non-extant, or dried up.

Realizing this condition, the committee said in its report:

If we wish to do our share toward satisfying the legitimate demand for information concerning the problems peculiarly within the view of this conference, if we wish to make intelligent social research truly profitable, if we wish to supply the fact-basis essential to practical endeavor in the struggle with social questions—then let us take the necessary first step and bend our energy toward improving the primary sources of social statistics.

Chief among such sources of social statistics are the records, reports and other information pertaining to activities represented within the conference. Small private societies, state and national organizations, institutional and

non-institutional agencies, all must keep records and make reports; and practically all have recourse in some way to the numerical representation of facts. Here is one of the weak points in our work and one with which the committee has especially concerned itself. For two years it has sought to meet the situation by recommending the adoption of uniform schedules designed to exhibit certain lines of social activity in such a way as to render the main facts consistent and comparable. A two-fold purpose has been kept in view: (1) To systematize such information as the agents themselves need for their own use. (2) To systematize knowledge for general consumption. In line with its previous endeavors, the committee this year presented a schedule for the use of child-helping agencies. It was discussed and recommended for adoption on the last day of the conference at a joint meeting of the section on statistics and the section on children.

It is one thing, however, to recommend uniform schedules and quite another to secure their general adoption. Experience has shown that it is not easy for the conference to do this. Moreover, even if all that can be desired in this direction is done, it will not suffice for the necessary improvement of the sources of social information, for back of this question concerning uniform schedules lies another difficulty. The reason why we must content ourselves with recommending elementary schedules and can only advance to more perfect ones by painfully slow degrees is that the raw material from which schedules should be made up is not obtained. In other words, the initial trouble lies in the fact that social agencies so largely employ crude and inefficient methods in recording the facts about their daily work. The need of the hour is, therefore, of some competent agencies which should be ready at all times to assist institutions and organizations in devising model systems of records and reports and to put them into operation. Experience has shown that there is a large and persistent demand for such service. The present chair-

man of the committee on statistics has within the last six months had enough requests for help in working out systems of records, etc., to keep him busy for weeks. Self evidently, some special machinery must be developed to perform this service. If the conference is unable to supply it, we must seek for it outside conference committees, but in co-operation with them. Unless the work described be done, unless we set about to improve the primary sources of social statistics, we shall not strike at the root of things, render the perfect service to workers in charities and correction and further the true object of social research.

The output of social statistics in this country, is distinguished for quantity rather than for quality. Nothing is more needed than sane and fearless criticism of current statistical work. Miss Kate Holladay Claghorn supplied this in an exceptionally brilliant paper on the use and misuse of social statistics. Few persons have a keener eye for defective statistical methods and analysis than Miss Claghorn. She combines with devotion to the science of statistics a just appreciation of its limitations and of the inappropriateness of applying it indiscriminately to all sorts of social conditions. Not less but better social research work is her slogan. The application of the statistical method to social phenomena within the immediate range of the conference is still in its infancy and has not been without excesses. This is hardly the unexpected in view of the ever increasing activity in what we are pleased to call research work. But it is timely that attention is drawn to mistaken efforts and the shortcomings of the current statistical product. In doing so Miss Claghorn performed a much needed service. The attitude of the public toward statistical work is for the most part unthinking and uncritical; it is ready to accept any one's say so. In short, the standards are not what they should be, and it is only by inspiring criticism that higher levels and a solid body of information can be reached.

A paper which excited much interest

and of which an abstract was read, was that by F. L. Hoffman on The Problem of Poverty and Pensions in Old Age. "It is a curious commentary upon social conditions in America," said Mr. Hoffman, "that the problem of the aged poor should demand consideration at a time which (barring the present depression) is usually considered the most prosperous period which this country has ever known.

Mr. Hoffman's paper gives numerous facts about the European pension systems, many of which seem to him applicable to this country. In fact, he holds that any form of old age pensions would not only be likely to impose intolerable burdens upon any of our states, but that a system of universal pensions is fundamentally wrong, because it tends to undermine self-reliance and thrift. He says:

The agitation for state pensions in the United States is ill-advised, in that the problem of poverty in old age, as generally met with, is primarily the result of ill-spent years, or ill-spent earnings or ill-spent savings. Poverty is a relative term and its actual extent is much less than generally assumed. Of real pauperism there is, as yet, very little in this country, and the economic condition precludes the growth of a permanent pauper class.

The lively discussion following, and which was participated in by Mayor Hibbard of Boston, among others, made it clear that many dissent from Mr. Hoffman's views and that the general subject of old age pensions is one in which people are beginning to take a very keen interest.

The second meeting of the committee on statistics at Richmond was devoted to a paper by C. C. Carstens on The Statistical Test in Work for Children and a discussion of the uniform schedule presented by the committee. Unfortunately, the writer was obliged to leave before this meeting took place as it was postponed to the last day of the conference in order to effect a joint meeting with the committee on children.

The committee on statistics has a long road before it. The results of its work thus far are perhaps not so easily discernible. But while the conference

keeps up an unflagging interest in the subject it is surely worth while pegging away with preachment and precept, the latter in the form of uniform schedules.

Press and Publicity

H. Wirt Steele

The section on press and publicity held one session during the conference. Although there were four other section meetings going on at the same time, the council chamber at the City Hall was crowded to its capacity when the chairman of the committee called the meeting to order.

The keynote of the session was sounded in the epitomized report made by the chairman when he stated that the newspaper man, the magazine editor, and other publicists have begun to recognize that they have a definite responsibility in relation to work for social uplift and that this realization seems to be reflected both in newspaper items and stories and in the tone of editorials. The sense of the meeting seemed to be that it is very desirable to secure the right kind of publicity for all charitable and correctional efforts and charitable needs. Just what constitutes right publicity was not clearly established although a better understanding of the whole subject was reached.

The principal address was made by Edgar D. Shaw, manager of the *Washington Times*, who spoke as one of the men in his field of work who have a realization of their opportunity as well as of their responsibility. His idea of right publicity as expressed in his address is that the news story must necessarily touch a responsive chord in the people, it must picture the odd, the romantic, the pathetic, tragic, or the humorous and if it is a story of a family in distress it must be told in a way not to injure or offend their finest feelings. He contended that it was not right to use the names and addresses of applicants for charity, but that if the story could not be well told without names and addresses, fictitious ones should be used.

Mr. Shaw cited two news items, one

a bare statement of the facts of a committee meeting and including an appeal for funds, the other a "human interest story," of a real case of need without names or addresses and with some of the facts slightly overdrawn and also containing an appeal for money. He thought the latter of more value than the former in spite of the slight exaggeration, rather than on account of them.

The work of this committee developed the fact that in only three or four centers in the United States are the people engaged in philanthropic work conducting anything like an adequate campaign of publicity. In these centers charitable societies have either developed special agents by drafting them from newspaper work or providing newspaper training for social workers. In one city the general secretary of the associated charities prepares a daily story for the newspapers; in another a newspaper reporter who has had some experience in charitable work is subsidized and paid at the rate of \$3.00 or \$4.00 a column for material which he prepares and which is accepted by the press. In still another a trained newspaper man is employed as publicity agent and financial secretary. A number of cities reported that they had the sympathy and co-operation of newspaper editors although no definite plan of campaign has been evolved.

In the last analysis it seems that right publicity will only be secured after a thorough cultivation of newspaper men in the locality where the publicity is to be secured; by securing their real interest and by giving them a clear un-

derstanding of the aim and objects of the work being done and the results sought for. When this is done most editors will realize the importance of social work and will not give to all grudgingly but will seek to give to all of their newspaper and editorial matter the color and tone which will enlist the sympathy and support of their readers and so promote the democratization of social effort.

Not the least important side of publicity work is its influence on the financial support of charitable and correctional effort either private or public. The statement was made that no such effort which tells its whole story and tells it well, if it is doing a legitimate piece of work, or meeting a legitimate need, will lack for financial assistance whether it must depend on private and voluntary contributions or secure appropriation from legislative bodies.

Two large schemes of publicity were outlined by the chairman and Arthur P. Kellogg of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. The former told of the work of his committee in securing widespread publicity for the discussions occurring in the National Conference, while the latter told of the press service conducted by his publication which sends copyrighted stories each week to 125 of the leading newspapers of the country. It was pointed out that both of these efforts depend for success very largely on the efforts of local charity workers to secure the right attitude and understanding on the part of the newspaper men in their respective communities.

The National Conference of the St. Vincent de Paul Society

William J. White, D. D.

Supervisor of Catholic Charities, Brooklyn

The seventy-fifth anniversary of the organization of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, was commemorated at Richmond, Va., on May 3-6 by a national conference, which, in point of members in attendance, number of papers read and resolutions adopted, was the most successful in the history of the society.

Every phase of charitable work in which the society is engaged, was considered, by the 200 members in attendance. In fact, there were so many papers read, that, at some of the sessions there was little time left for any discussion of them. A significant feature of the conference, however, was the emphasis

placed on the work of finding homes for institution children; the acknowledgment of the value of women's auxiliaries, in connection with the work of the society, the utility of Catholic charities exhibits, especially in large cities; and the need of a national monthly publication, devoted to Catholic charities and kindred topics.

On Sunday, May 3, the conference opened with a solemn high mass in the new cathedral, at which the rector, Rev. J. B. O'Reilly, made the address of welcome. At four o'clock the following officers for the coming year were elected:

President, Thomas M. Mulry, of New York; vice-presidents, Col. John Murphy, of Richmond; J. L. Hornsby, of St. Louis; Thomas D. Rapier, of New Orleans; T. W. Hynes, of Brooklyn; secretary, Edmond J. Butler, of New York; assistant secretaries, George R. Ryan, of Boston; J. McCann, of Chicago.

In the evening the Bijou theater was crowded with the delegates and the citizens of Richmond, to listen to the address of welcome from Mayor Carlton McCarthy. Governor Swanson paid a splendid tribute to the Catholic church for her work in defending family life; and Alexander Johnston, secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, extended a welcome to the Vincentians from that body. Other speakers at the meeting were: J. L. Hornsby of St. Louis, Thomas B. Rapier of New Orleans, Rev. Dr. McMahon, spiritual director of the society; Bishop Keily of Savannah, and Thomas M. Mulry of New York, president of the conference, who reviewed the history of the society from its humble beginning seventy-five years ago in Paris, dwelling on the similarity between the methods of twentieth century charity and those used by St. Vincent de Paul in the seventeenth century. He made a strong plea for co-operation with other charitable societies—whether non-sectarian, Protestant or Hebrew; seeing in such co-operation a stand for the safety of the country's future and a move for the uplifting of the neglected and poverty stricken and for the preservation of law and order.

The real work of the convention began on Monday morning, when, after hear-

ing the conference sermon preached by the Rev. D. J. MacMahon, D. D., of New York, in St. Peter's church, the delegates assembled in St. Mary's hall, where all the subsequent sessions of the conference were held.

The general topic at the morning session was Dependent Families. George R. Regan of Boston read a paper on Visiting Poor Families in their Homes. Albert Hoen of Baltimore presented the subject of Adequate Relief; and The Spiritual Character of the Home was considered by William H. Hardy of Boston.

The trend of the papers and of the discussion which followed, showed that the relief of needy families was in the nature of a religious act; that adequate relief meant that measure of relief which would enable dependent families, under favorable conditions, to become independent; and not merely an equation, in which there was a needy family on one side, and a ticket for groceries on the other. The service of a paid agent, in large cities where the problems of charity are complex, was justified; and the need of comparing relief rolls with those of other societies, to avoid duplication and imposition, was dwelt upon.

The afternoon session took up the topic of Dependent Children. Two very interesting papers were read: The Placing of Orphans and Destitute Children in the Homes of Foster Parents by Dr. Charles F. McKenna of New York, and The After Care and Supervision of Children from Institutions by Joseph C. Judge of Baltimore. A spirited discussion followed. The need of institutions for certain classes of children was acknowledged; but where possible children should be placed in foster homes, where individual care could be given and the spirit of initiative and sense of responsibility developed. Dr. McKenna gave some interesting statistics of the work of the Catholic Home Bureau of New York city for the ten years it has been in existence. 1,724 children have been placed in foster homes during this period, of whom only fourteen died; ninety-nine per cent of these children were public charges, and eighty per cent were under twelve years of age. The placing of these

children in foster homes has meant a saving to the tax-payers of about \$1,250,000.

Edward T. Devine spoke of the work of the Charity Organization Society, and praised the spirit of co-operation between the Vincentian workers and the New York Charity Organization Society.

The Dependent Sick Poor was the topic for the evening session. D. D. Donovan of Providence read a paper prepared by Dr. John Horgan of Boston, The Physician in the Conference and J. C. Carroll of St. Louis in a paper on Homes for Convalescents discussed the problem of caring for indigent persons recovering from illness, but not yet ready to take up the burden of life.

Rev. William H. Kerby, D. D., professor of sociology at the Catholic University, Washington, D. C., made an earnest plea for the development of the social conscience in children and the establishment of a standard of housekeeping by competition—a plan already in operation in Belgium.

Bishop Van de Vyver of Richmond thanked the delegates for selecting Richmond for the conference assuring them that their presence meant an inspiration to the local conferences. At the close of the session a reception was given to the delegates at McGill Institute by the Catholic ladies of Richmond.

On Tuesday morning, after the delegates had attended mass at St. Peter's and received Holy Communion, they met in St. Mary's hall to discuss reformatory work. J. L. Hornsby of St. Louis read a paper on Probation Work prepared by Needham C. Collier of the same city. Prison Committees were considered in a paper by John J. Fitzgerald; and Juvenile Offenders was the theme of one by Patrick Mallon of Brooklyn. Rev. James T. Ward of Providence, R. I., spoke on Working Boys' Homes. Brother Barnabas of New York, who opened the discussion on Father Ward's paper, declared that the function of the working boys' home was "to teach him manliness and self-support; besides his place in the community as an individual." "We must have small groups," he said, "not over twenty-five at most, and must preserve the home

attitude. We must teach manners as well as morals, to enable our boys to win the respect and esteem of their future associates." At the close of the session Amos W. Butler of Indianapolis, former president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, dwelt on the need of unity in charity work. "Perhaps it might be said that I have no place on the platform of a Catholic conference, but in charity we all are one. On no other platform," he declared, "have I ever seen all churches and denominations unite in the consideration of charity; where Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant are one". In the discussion that followed the reading of the papers, as well as in the papers themselves, both the importance of the juvenile court and the large part that private societies play in making the work of the court possible and successful were acknowledged.

"In New York," said Mr. Mallon, probation officer of the children's court, Brooklyn, "we have to depend on private societies for the enforcement of children's laws. Much can be done by the societies to foster public opinion for the enforcement of laws, for the protection of children."

There was no afternoon session, as the delegates were busy visiting the charitable institutions and the historic battlefields near the city. In the evening the general topic was special works.

Conference Methods, Membership, Officers of the Society, and Methods of Securing Funds, were some of the papers read by different members. Summer Vacations for Poor Children was the subject of a paper by W. J. Brooks of Baltimore, while P. J. Coyne of Philadelphia dwelt on the work of the St. Vincent de Paul Society for Catholic Seamen in Seaport Cities. On account of the number of papers, there was no discussion, but Thomas G. Raper, managing editor of the New Orleans *Picayune*, called attention to the misleading headlines in some of the local papers in reporting the placing out work. "It might appear," he said, "that it was the opinion of the conference that the modern placing out system would supplant the

orphan asylum. The placing out system is good as an auxiliary, but I do not believe it will even take the place of the asylum. There are dangers to be met in this system, and it has yet to show its permanent value."

The closing session of the conference took place on Wednesday morning at 10.30. The delegates assisted at a pontifical requiem mass in St. Peter's church for their deceased brothers, afterwards adjourning to St. Mary's hall, where they listened to more papers on subjects of interest to the society.

William F. Downey of Washington, whom President Roosevelt, a few ago called a model citizen, read a paper on Homes for Homeless Men. Edward J. Crumney of Georgetown University spoke on The Conference in the University. Rev. Dr. Kerby of the Catholic University, showed the necessity of a national Catholic monthly, which would be the organ of the society and a forum for the discussion of every form of Catholic endeavor. Brother Francis O'Neil, also of the Catholic University, read a most interesting paper on The Utility of a Catholic Charities Exhibit. He called attention to the exhibit of the congestion of population in Mechanics' Institute, and showed how the splendid work of Catholic institutions could be brought before the public by means of photographs, models, etc. Rev. W. J. White of Brooklyn spoke briefly on The Importance of Distributing Catholic Literature in the Homes of the Poor, and Daniel McCann of Evanston, Illinois, suggested ways of securing good attendance at the weekly meetings of the various conferences.

Dr. D. C. Potter of the Finance Department, who was sent by Mayor McClellan of New York to represent the city at the national conference which opened on May 6, aroused great enthusiasm by his description of the work which the charitable institutions of New York city were doing for the little ones committed to them. He read extracts from the report of the Foundling Asylum of that city, which showed that 16,000 children have been placed in permanent homes by this one institution alone.

The following resolutions were then adopted:

Whereas, the jubilee of our Holy Father Pius X, occurs on July 28th next,

Whereas, we have been filled with admiration at the firmness he has displayed in meeting the problems which confront the church in Europe, and we desire to make an offering of love and devotion to him:

1. Resolved, That the National Conference of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul recommends that the members throughout the United States offer up their next general Holy Communion, July 19, 1908, for the Holy Father, Pope Pius X.

2. We earnestly recommend to the Council General the reorganization of the society with one Superior Council and an Upper Council in each ecclesiastical province, to be called the Superior Council of the United States, and to be composed of the presidents of the upper councils and twelve members selected by the president of the Superior Council.

3. We recommend a committee for considering the advisability of a monthly publication for the society.

4. We desire to express to the hierarchy and clergy our sense of profound gratitude for their approval, encouragement and active support by means of which the society has been able to work valiantly for church and humanity. The society begs a continuance of their active encouragement and support, realizing that without it little can be done and that with it nothing is impossible.

On a motion of Judge De Lacy of the Children's Court, Washington, D. C., a rising vote of thanks was given to the bishop and priests of Richmond, to the governor and mayor, to the ladies' auxiliary, to Colonel Murphy, president of the local conference of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, to the press and the people of Richmond for their splendid hospitality.

Rev. D. J. McMahon, D. D., spiritual director of the society, after reviewing the work the conference had accomplished, brought the proceedings to a close with prayer.

While the conference was in session the representatives of the various women's auxiliaries of the St. Vincent de Paul Society met in the hall of delegates and organized themselves into a national society to be known as St. Elizabeth's Union. The officers elected were:

Rev. William Kerby, Ph.D., of the Catholic University at Washington, spiritual direc-

tor; Mrs. J. J. O'Donohue, of New York, President; Mrs. Thomas H. Carter, of Helena, Montana, secretary, and Mrs. P. J. Twomey, of St. Louis, treasurer.

The object of the union is to co-operate with the St. Vincent de Paul Society in its special works and to develop and strengthen local women's auxiliaries.

One conference of charities is much like another, yet the gathering of Vincen-tians at Richmond had some distinctive features that are significant. It was naturally a men's conference, as membership in the society is limited to the sterner sex. It was representative of the great church to which its members owe allegiance. There were one or two wealthy delegates, some professional men, a large number of business men and an equally large number of men whose means are limited, whose education was got in the college of experience, whose minds grasp the concrete rather than the abstract, and, who in their own way, through their devotion to the poor, are helping to solve mighty problems.

Not less remarkable than the complexion of the conference was the emphasis

that was placed on the spiritual character of the work of helping the poor. In fact, some of the papers could be preached as sermons. Then, too, the papers were practical rather than academic and if the sentences were not always well balanced there was a ring of earnestness in them that more than atoned for well rounded periods. The conference showed its readiness to adopt itself to modern conditions, in giving prominence to the placing out system, in making a place for the paid agent in large cities, in advocating co-operation with other charitable societies doing similar work, in acknowledging the value of the charities exhibit and in making effective the work of prevention in children's courts by enlisting its members as volunteer probation officers.

The ability of the society to adjust itself to its environment, to face new conditions, to solve new problems, to be modern in a modern world and yet preserve its identity is a proof of the wisdom and the breadth of view of Ozanam and his earnest band of university students who founded the society. The good seed has brought forth fruit a hundredfold.

The National Conference of Jewish Charities

Solomon Lowenstein

The fifth biennial session of the National Conference of Jewish Charities was held in Richmond, from May 4 to 6, 1908. Over seventy delegates were registered at the conference, representing practically all the important cities of the United States, and covering a territory extending from Boston to Denver and from Chicago to Atlanta. The various meetings were held at the Temple Beth Ahabah and the visitors were entertained with lavish hospitality by the members of the local Jewish community. The sessions were very well attended by the members of the Richmond community, the large vestry room of the temple in which the meetings were held, being always well filled and at times uncomfortably crowded.

The session opened with a dinner, tendered to the visitors by the local com-

mittee, at the Hotel Jefferson. The visitors were warmly welcomed to Richmond by Governor Swanson, Mayor McCarthy, Rabbi Edward N. Calisch and Charles Hutzler. Edward T. Devine spoke on behalf of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and responses on behalf of the conference itself were made by the president, Nathan Bijur, by Cyrus Sulzberger, of New York city and by Mrs. Hugo Rosenberg, of Pittsburgh, president of the National Conference of Jewish Women.

At the opening of the business sessions of the conference, on the following morning, Mr. Bijur presented his biennial report, reviewing in detail the Jewish charitable situation, with particular reference to new work inaugurated during his term of office. A paper had been prepared for this meeting by

E. W. Lewin-Epstein, Bernard Richards, Professor H. L. Sabsovich and Dr. Bayid Blaustein, on Jewish Charitable Activities in Russia. This report was of exceeding interest as indicating the wide range of charitable activities carried on by Russian Jews despite the hardships and privations of their lives and their utter poverty. Particularly was it interesting to learn of the great amount of voluntary effort and personal service manifested by persons so poor that, in other more fortunate countries, they might themselves be regarded as legitimate objects of charitable aid on the part of their more prosperous co-religionists. Here, too, was shown the origin of such of these Russian societies as have been transplanted to America,—for example, the very successful free loan societies which loan without interest, upon personal endorsement and which have no administrative expenses, and likewise, free burial societies, free schools for religious instructions, etc.

Dr. Hollander, in his paper on the Unification of Jewish Charitable Activities, presented a masterly analysis of the development of Jewish charitable organization in the United States. He outlined the growth of these societies from their rather crude, early form, when they were conducted by Jewish immigrants, mainly of German origin, and were called upon only infrequently and then for the assistance of persons similar in birth, habit and occupation to those who made up their own membership. During the early eighties, as a result of the Russian persecution, the homogeneity of the various communities was destroyed by the incursion of Russian refugees, and new forms and new methods had to be introduced. As a result of the new needs, the plan of federation of local organizations was evolved, but the new-comers, representative of the recent immigrants, who had attained prosperity and evinced an interest and willingness to join in communal work, were ignored with a resultant duplication of work due to the establishment of new organizations, and new institutions conducted by and for

Russian immigrants as opposed to the older organizations and institutions conducted likewise for Russian immigrants very largely, but operated by their German or American co-religionists. To remedy this duplication, Dr. Hollander believed to be the next necessary step, and one that could be best secured at the present time by a co-operation of joint federations, representing the two elements, with a view to ultimate complete local federation. The paper led to an interesting discussion in which Dr. J. L. Magnes, Rabbi of Temple Emanuel, New York city, Milton E. Marcuse, Richmond, Va., Cyrus Sulzberger, New York city, and Dr. Max Landsberg, Rochester, N. Y., participated.

The session of Tuesday afternoon was opened with a paper by Rabbi George Zepin, superintendent of the United Hebrew Charities of Chicago, Ill., on Intermunicipal Co-operation in Charitable Activities, in which he urged that adjacent communities, no one of which might have a sufficient number of any particular class of dependents, defectives or delinquents requiring institutional treatment, to justify the establishment of separate local institutions, might combine and jointly establish in some one city an institution for the care of one or more of these classes to which all might send such cases. Thus, for example, cities like Cleveland, Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, Louisville, Indianapolis and Detroit, might combine to build an institution for the care of delinquent children, or patients suffering from incipient or advanced tuberculosis, or chronic or incurable invalids or any other similar classes who might need attention. Samuel Grabfelder, of Philadelphia, president of the National Hospital for Jewish Consumptives in Denver, explained in a brief paper how his organization was practically supported in this way, inasmuch as it receives contributions and patients from practically all the large cities of the country. Jacob Furth, representing the Independent Order B'nai B'rith, a national Jewish fraternal organization, explained the plan by which the Jewish Orphan Asylum of Cleveland and other similar

institutions had originally been founded and supported by that order by means of such intermunicipal or rather inter-lodge co-operation; the Cleveland Orphan Asylum, for example, being supported by all the lodges of a certain district, from all parts of which district, children were received in the institution.

The sensational episode of the meeting occurred on this afternoon when Dr. Stephen S. Wise, of the Free Synagogue, New York city, delivered an address upon the functions of the conference. Dr. Wise complained that his criticism of all philanthropic activities was not "too much organization," but rather "under-organization"; that there was an especial need for statesmanship and constructive work in the conduct of our various organizations. He emphasized the fact that poverty must not be regarded as criminal or shameful, and that if there be crime in poverty, it is social and not individual crime. He emphasized the need of interpreting poverty in the ancient Jewish sense of justice. Dr. Wise punctuated his address with many criticisms of existing conditions in Jewish charitable work, charging the work as at present conducted with sins both of commission and omission. Many of the delegates present felt that his strictures in many cases were unjust and unfair, while agreeing with his general statements and consequently it was greatly regretted that he could not remain to reply personally to his critics. The discussion of his paper was laid over to the following day when it was strongly criticized by Dr. Boris D. Bogen, United Jewish Charities, Cincinnati, O., Cyrus Sulzberger, United Hebrew Charities, New York city, Dr. H. G. Enelow, Rabbi of Congregation Adath Israel, Louisville, Ky., and Solomon Lowenstein, Hebrew Orphan Asylum, New York city. Dr. Lee K. Frankel, New York city, Rabbi Morris Feuerlicht, Indianapolis, Ind., and Abraham Nelson, of the Beth Israel Hospital, New York city, though taking exception to some of Dr. Wise's contentions, agreed with him in the main.

On Wednesday morning a paper was read by Louis Marshall, of New York

city, on the Need of a Distinctly Jewish Tendency in the Conduct of Jewish Educational Institutions. Mr. Marshall criticized the tendency that had been apparent in institutions conducted by so-called reform Jews, to ignore the customs, traditions and religious regulations sacred to the orthodox Jew, who in his own person and those of his children, furnishes a great majority of the beneficiaries of these organizations. He particularly criticized the attitude of such institutions as call themselves Jewish and label themselves non-sectarian. He pleaded for a strong and positive Jewish spirit in the conduct of all these institutions and particularly demanded that they be managed with respect for the traditional Jewish laws and observances. In the discussion of this paper, Dr. Blaustein, formerly superintendent of the Educational Alliance of New York city, cited numerous examples of well-meant but ill-informed action on the part of settlement workers on the East Side, who by ignorance of Jewish custom and law had offended the sensibilities of the very persons whom they were anxious to influence. Judge Philip Rubenstein, of the Juvenile Court of Boston, Judge Julian W. Mack, formerly of the Juvenile Court of Chicago, Mrs. Kohut, of New York city, and Mrs. Hugo Rosenberg, of Pittsburgh, joined Mr. Marshall in urging an intensification of the Jewishness of our institutional work. This, in fact, may be said to have been the dominant note of the entire conference.

The last session, that of Wednesday afternoon, was devoted to the business work of the conference, and as a result of the paper read by V. H. Kriegshaber, of the Federated Jewish Charities of Atlanta, Ga., a permanent field secretary will probably be appointed to represent the conference and to organize Jewish communal work in the smaller cities of the country where no definite organizations as yet exist.

The following officers were elected for the next conference:

President, Dr. Jacob H. Hollander, professor of political economy in Johns Hopkins University, president of the Federation of Jewish Charities of Baltimore, Md.

Vice-presidents, Martin A. Marks, of the Federation of Jewish Charities of Cleveland, O., and Mrs. Max Landsberg, United Jewish Charities of Rochester, N. Y.

Secretary, Louis H. Levin, secretary, Federated Jewish Charities of Baltimore, Md.

Treasurer, Bernard Greensfelder, secretary of the Jewish Charitable and Educational Union, St. Louis, Mo.

Members of the executive committee, Max Senior, United Jewish Charities, Cincinnati,

O., Max Herzberg, United Hebrew Charities, Philadelphia, Pa.; Judge Julian W. Mack, Associated Jewish Charities, Chicago, Ill.; Nathan Bijur, New York, (the four former presidents of the Conference), and in addition, Joseph H. Cohen, president of the Beth Israel Hospital, New York city, Samuel S. Fleisher, Baron De Hirsch Fund, Philadelphia, Pa.; Dr. Lee K. Frankel, New York city; Julius Rosenwald, Associated Jewish Charities, Chicago, Ill., and Lucius L. Solomons, San Francisco, Cal.

Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children

Hastings H. Hart

The fifth annual Conference on Education of Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children was held, partly at Hampton, Va., and partly at Richmond, immediately preceding the National Conference of Charities and Correction. About 100 delegates were present.

The conference is composed chiefly of representatives of juvenile reformatories, with a few representatives of public schools, institutions for feeble-minded children and societies or institutions caring for dependent children. In view of its declared purposes, it ought to enlist the co-operation of all who deal with defective and subnormal children, either in public schools or in institutions for defective children as well as those who care for delinquents. Mornay Williams, president of the New York Juvenile Asylum and the Children's Village, presided. The secretary was O. E. Darnell.

The juvenile reformatories were represented by such men as Superintendent Wentworth of Maine, Superintendent Coffeen of Massachusetts, Superintendent Hilles of the New York Children's Village, President Robinson and Brother Barnabas of the New York Catholic Protectory, Superintendent Nibecker of Philadelphia, Superintendent Adams of Ohio and Superintendent Hutton of Wisconsin.

A splendid group of women represented reformatory work for girls. Among them were Miss Morse of Massachusetts, Mrs. Fairbanks of Connecticut, Mrs. Falconer of Philadelphia, Mrs. Amigh of Illinois, and Mrs. Gregory, clerk of the Denver Juvenile Court. These women,

who are veterans in work for girls, have gathered about them a fine body of young women, mostly college bred, enthusiastic, teachable, sympathetic with young life. These young women are teachers of letters, teachers of domestic science, teachers of physical culture, and, one of them, a teacher of play.

There were present, also, Superintendent William J. Doherty of the New York Catholic Home Bureau, Superintendent William J. Maybee of the Virginia Children's Home Society and Superintendent H. H. Hart of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, and also Secretary Alexander Johnson of the National Conference of Charities and Correction who represented the interests of defective children.

The first day's session was held at Hampton Institute, in order to give the members the opportunity to study the remarkable industrial system of the institute and the bright work of the Whittier School for colored children. At the opening meeting Dr. Frissell, principal of the Hampton Normal Institute, gave a luminous account of the evolution of the institute and the evolution of its students. Dr. Frissell set forth eloquently the uses of industrial training in its concrete forms of trade teaching, agricultural training and domestic science for the intellectual expansion and the moral training of the students. He maintained that no amount of intellectual or moral training could impart the lessons which are acquired in the manual schools—lessons of precision, fidelity, perfection and completeness of attainment. He maintained

that students spending half their time in industrial work made equal intellectual progress with those who spent all of their time in the school of letters.

The visitors inspected the shops and the other industrial work. They found pupils manufacturing wagons and implements for the market to sell in competition with the products of the best shops. They found pupils studying the chemistry of soils, intensive farming, horticulture, floriculture and general agriculture. The student who applied himself to a special branch of industrial training is also required to learn something of other branches. The farmer must be able to make a wagon tongue or hang a gate; the plasterer must be able to build a chimney, and the carpenter must be able to repair the broken plastering around his job.

All of this had a direct bearing upon the subject of the conference, for it illustrated the value of industrial training to stimulate the intellect and to bring out the latent powers of the dull and backward pupil.

At the opening meeting, Superintendent Charles D. Hilles of the New York Juvenile Society and the Children's Village read an earnest paper in which he set up the high ideals to be cherished in this work; the discriminating insight with which the boy must be studied; the scientific skill with which his best possibilities are to be developed; the economy of using expensive methods and high class people because of the value of the product. Mr. Hilles and the Children's Village exemplify in the highest degree work of the quality which he advocated.

On Sunday evening, preceding the conference, many of the members attended the Sunday evening service at Hampton Institute and were thrilled by the singing of plantation melodies by eight hundred students. In these folk-songs is preserved, perhaps more perfectly than in any other way, the best traditions of the negro in captivity. Unlike the ancient Israelites they did not hang their harps upon the willows; but, out of the depths of their affliction, raised songs whose pathos, power and inspiration have been recognized as a unique force, the world over.

A feature of the conference was the vigorous paper of Dr. D. C. Potter, chief examiner of accounts for the city of New York, entitled *Why the City of New York Employs Private Institutions to Care for its Children*. The paper was an uncompromising defence of the New York system of compensating private institutions from the public treasury for the care of dependent, neglected and delinquent children.

Dr. Potter showed that this method was expressly authorized by the constitution of the state of New York, the charter of Greater New York, and supplementary legislation enacted for the purpose of giving effect to these provisions. He explained that these provisions were made in consequence of the investigations and reports made by William P. Letchworth and other members of the New York Board of Charities. He defended the New York system on the following grounds:

1. The system of public care of children in almshouses and other public institutions has been tried and found thoroughly bad, as shown by the investigations of Mr. Letchworth.
2. The present system enlists the unpaid service of the best citizens, free from all entanglements of partizan politics, and solves the problem of securing to the child the influences of the religion of his parents.
3. The system is far more economical than would be possible under any system of direct public care.

On this point I quote from Dr. Potter's paper.

In 1898 was passed the so-called Stranahan act, empowering the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which is the city government (of greater New York) to make such payments, both in amount and under such conditions to private institutions as it may see fit; and giving the board the right to add to or take from any private charitable institutions such sums as it may think proper.

The charter of the city of Greater New York, adopted in 1900, section 230, paragraph 24, puts this Stranahan act into force and, from the date, the Board of Estimate, through the office of the controller, has actually exercised supervision over all the private institutions, maintaining public wards of every sort whatever, and paying them upon the per capita and per diem basis. All payments are regulated under certain rules, promulgated by the board.

The only compensation which they receive, barring freedom from taxation and

free water is the flat rates paid: For the care, maintenance and support of dependent children, \$2.25 per week; (\$107.30 per annum); for delinquent children, \$135 per annum, with an increase over these rates of 25 cents per week, where children are provided for on the cottage-village plan; and \$15 per annum for education for children of school age actually in class room attendance.

In the children's institutions of all kinds, in 1906, there were 32,761 souls. The city could not change this system if it would; personally, I do not believe it would if it could. In some figures which I made for the use of the Board of Estimates and Apportionment, using 1906 as a period for calculation, we set down the value of our private institutional property at \$47,968,155. (Including children's institutions and hospitals.)

But these estimates were actually made some years ago and based upon the cost of construction at the time when the institutions were erected. Many of them have been enlarged and improved in various ways, and it is probable that the actual value of these institutions to-day (and when we say value we mean the sum they would bring if they were sold) is little short of \$80,000,000; and we know very well they could not be duplicated for that sum. It is well within the facts to say, should the city seek to provide modern and adequate facilities for the care of its needy children, estimating upon the cost found to be imperative to make structures conform to the present building and sanitary laws, the city could not make provision to house and shelter the children in the institutions in the city to-day for \$125,000,000.

It is a little difficult for a layman to understand how a valuation of \$47,968,000 for children's institutions and hospitals together, in 1906, could expand to an estimate of \$125,000,000 for cost of replacing the children's institutions, alone, in 1908. The total number of children cared for in 1906 is reported by Dr. Potter at 32,761. The average was not probably more than 28,000, which would make the cost of replacing the institutions, on Dr. Potter's estimate \$4,500 per bed; or, if we take the total of 32,761 as a basis, the cost of replacement would be \$3,900 per bed. The most expensive institution for children with which we are acquainted cost, including land, about \$2,400; but this average will be reduced, when the institution is enlarged to its full capacity.

Dr. Potter stated that, while children are being paid for in private institutions

(with a few exceptions) at a maximum rate of \$135 per year, with an additional allowance of \$15 for children attending school, making a total of \$150 as a maximum, the city of New York has made partial provision for truants in palaces, at a per capita cost of \$275, and he declared that the plan of public care would result in unlimited extravagance, and that in the public institutions, after they are built there must be constant expenditure for extending and maintaining plants by millions, while private institutions maintain their own plants. The private institution can introduce new methods and reform as public institutions cannot. Dr. Potter cited for illustration the change of the New York Juvenile Asylum from the congregate to the village plan.

Dr. Potter stated further that about twenty per cent of these children in these institutions are maintained by the institutions, at their own expense, without cost to the city.

Mr. Hilles called attention to the Brooklyn disciplinary training school which is maintained by the city of New York in Brooklyn at a cost of about \$300 per capita under a mandatory act which appropriates \$48,000 per year.

Superintendent Nibecker said that the expenditure of the city represents only a part of what is expended by the institutions for the benefit of the children. Dr. Potter replied that the city tries to pay a fair compensation for the work actually done, without any allowance for plant, and that the rate had been increased twice within the past few years to meet the increased cost of living expenses.

Dr. Potter took the ground that the choice must be made between the plan of institutional care for children and the Massachusetts plan of placing children in family homes without institutional care. Mr. Hart suggested that there was a third alternative, namely the combined use of institutional care and the placing out system.

In the light of Dr. Potter's fervid defence of the institutional system, it was interesting to hear the report of Brother Barnabas of 200 children placed in satis-

factory family homes last year from the New York Catholic Protectory and to note Superintendent Doherty's report of 300 children placed in Catholic homes last year by the Catholic Home Bureau and the emphatic declarations in the conference of the St. Vincent de Paul Society in favor of the placing out system. The rapid change of sentiment during past ten years in the Roman Catholic Church, the Lutheran Church and the Jewish Church in favor of the placing out system, under proper conditions, is one of the most significant signs of the time. Every one who met Brother Barnabas, the director of St. Phillip's Home, and the placing out agent of the Catholic Protectory in New York, was impressed with his devoted spirit and his wide vision. His serious illness was a cause of general regret.

Mrs. Ophelia L. Amigh, the veteran superintendent of the Illinois Training School for Girls, entered a vigorous protest in view of the absence from the program and from the discussions of any reference to the delinquent girl and gave notice that, if necessary, the women would organize a conference of their own. President Williams acknowledged the deficiency but stated that the term "boy," like the term "men" was used generally, to include both sexes. He stated, however, that owing to the absence of the assigned speakers, time was available which would be placed at the disposal of the women.

Mrs. Amigh's claim as to the importance of the subject of the care of backward and delinquent girls and her intimation as to the ability of the women to discuss the subject profitably were both indicated when Mrs. Martha P. Fal-

coner, superintendent of the Philadelphia House for Refuge for Girls took the floor. Mrs. Falconer, two years ago, took the task of reorganizing the House of Refuge for Girls while remaining in an antiquated, prison-like institution and without violating the traditions of the conservative city of Philadelphia. Her success in this difficult task has won the support of her board of directors and the admiration of all who have watched the development of her plans. Her delinquent girls attend church and take outings in the park and the concert hall, like other school girls. The girls enter with enthusiasm into the superintendent's plans for their training and development. Girls with tubercular tendencies sleep in tents. The girls themselves have renovated and made habitable cheerful rooms on the first floor, formerly used as store-rooms, to replace the basement sitting rooms, which they formerly occupied.

A farm has been donated, and two cottages are already under construction with a view to removing the institution to the country; but without waiting for cottages, Mrs. Falconer sent most of her girls to the farm by companies, last summer, and kept a family of girls in an old farm house all winter. Her address gave an admirable illustration of what can be accomplished under the most untoward circumstances by those who have the will.

The conference will meet in Buffalo next May and it is to be hoped that representatives of special public schools for backward children, the child study departments, institutions for feeble-minded children and epileptic children will take an active share in the proceedings.

The Trend of Things

A sensational newspaper report of a dinner recently given in New York to discuss one important phase of social advance, has led to the country-wide publication of material distorted intentionally at its source, and calculated to work great harm to the cause which it misrepresents. The following paragraph from *The Independent* is reprinted because of its eminently fair characterization of the meeting and of the reports made of it:

"A little company of men and women have met occasionally at private houses in Brooklyn to consider in what way they can help the colored people of the neighborhood and relieve the inter-racial prejudice. They include several white men and women engaged in social work and a number of colored clergymen, editors, etc., with representatives of old families of abolition heritage. Last week they agreed for the first time to hold a dinner in this city and invite a number of

friends to meet with them. It was a very quiet affair, for they were most respectable people. The subject under discussion was caste prejudice, and it was treated conservatively. Not a word was said or a thing done in the least out of the way. We know, for one of our editors was there and spoke, as did an editor of the leading evening paper of this city. The *New York Times* gave a few lines to it the next morning, and its reporter said afterwards that he did not see anything in it to make a "story" of. But there are papers which expect their reporters to make a "story" whether there is one or not; and the reporter of such a paper was present, and he made a "feature" of it, describing it as a disgusting attempt to exhibit close social relations between white and colored men and women and to defend and urge intermarriage of the races. There was absolutely nothing of the sort said; not an act or expression that was not perfectly seemly; and yet that journal so distorted the facts as to do a serious injury to modest and self-respecting women, and send a foul sensation over the entire country. Not one of those present has any occasion to be ashamed of his part in it—in fact, their purpose and their conduct were highly creditable to them. As they have nothing to regret our sympathy goes more to those who are condemned to read such products of invention and inveracity than to those thus travestied. The latter suffer some wrong, but they know the truth; it is the readers of the journals who are deceived that suffer the greater wrong."

* * *

"We have one of the most beautiful cities topographically in the United States," writes President H. D. W. English of the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce, in sending out his annual report. "And while we have no desire to drop our distinction of being the great workshop of the world, we believe Pittsburgh is on the eve of taking high rank . . . in municipal as well as industrial and commercial advancement." This sentence well sums up the spirit of the report of forty pages, which marks the close of President English's second term as president of the Pittsburgh Chamber. Its various sections emphasize the broad policies which have been taken up and pushed aggressively during his regime. Trade extension and the merchant marine are discussed on opposite pages to the improvement of the milk supply; and there are sections on reciprocity of interest between railroads and shippers, river and harbor improvement, fuel testing laboratories, housing conditions, smoke abatement, sewage disposal, immigration and relief work—truly a wide range of activities; and the more thoroughly commercial of these have not suffered any in vigor and importance by the increased attention which has been given to constructive effort for the improvement of civic conditions. The issue as to what a Chamber of Com-

merce has to do with smoke abatement, municipal sanitation, etc., is frankly taken up by President English and answered.

* * *

A correspondent sent us this clipping from *The Philistine*, with the query "Why not try some investigator on the Turk?"

The French government, wishing to obtain definite statistics on points relating to certain Turkish provinces, recently sent some blanks, with questions to be answered, to the provincial governors. The replies received from the pasha of Damascus are worth quoting:

Question—What is the death rate in your province?

Answer—In Damascus, it is the will of Allah, that all should die. Some die young, and some die old.

Question—What is the annual number of births?

Answer—God alone can say—I do not know and hesitate to inquire.

Question—Are the supplies of water sufficient and of good quality?

Answer—From the remotest period no one has died in Damascus of thirst.

General remarks as to local sanitation: Man should not bother himself or his brother with questions that concern only God.

Jottings

American Prison Association.—The annual meeting of the American Prison Association will be held November 14-21 in Richmond, Va., with a program of special significance to the South. The governors of several states, the directors and wardens of prisons and other public men will join the members of the conference in a discussion of southern prisons, outdoor work for prisoners, convict camps, and peonage. The president of the association is the Rev. John L. Milligan, for thirty-five years chaplain of the Western Pennsylvania Penitentiary at Allegheny. John M. Glenn of New York is first vice-president, and Amos W. Butler of Indiana, secretary.

Exhibit of Native Arts, Greenwich House.—The exhibit of native arts of immigrant people to be held at Greenwich House, New York, May 27-28, will not be of school or class work, but of articles in use by the families in the neighborhood. Some of the articles have been made by the mothers of immigration women and others they made themselves while children and brought over with them.

Council of Jewish Women in New York.—The New York section of the Council of Jewish Women is filling the place of general utility in the scheme of things and anything that is left undone by other organizations finds a home and a committee in the

Council. Its general agent, Miss Perlman, has a diversity of work that no other social worker can muster. From advice on all sorts of legal, personal and general questions to assisting the district attorney with refractory Jewish witnesses where a girl is involved, and on through the mazes of investigating the affairs of insane girls who are to be released from the hospital, through assisting immigrant girls to work and social life, to touching every phase of communal activity beside creating a few unheard of before. The Council is caring for the Jewish blind, visiting the hospitals, almshouses and asylums for the insane, conducting religious schools in several districts as well as for the children in the hospitals on Randall's Island. These last children are given many little comforts and much help by the committee of young women who visit there regularly. There are also religious classes at the State Reformatory at Bedford and at the State School at Hudson. The Council also maintains a home for wayward girls and unmarried mothers at Staten Island which has demonstrated a remarkable percentage of good results. There is no movement of consequence in the philanthropic world that the section has not acquaintance with including an ice water fountain at the College Settlement established and maintained by the junior section. The president, Miss Sadie American, has imbued the workers with her own indefatigable spirit and sees to it that enthusiasm is engendered and careful and thoroughly efficiency held up as a standard. It is like the man at the moving picture theatre who plays the drum and makes all the queer noises called for by the pictures, the Council is expected to and does all the odd jobs that find no abiding place but require doing just the same.

Chicago Hebrew Institute.—In addition to the usual activities of social work along educational lines, the Chicago Hebrew Institute has this year added classes in industrial training. Classes in mechanical drawing, manual training, sewing, free-hand drawing, clay-modelling and mathematics have been organized and those in millinery, dressmaking, and stenography are to be formed from applications now on hand. This new work was made possible by a donation from the Chicago Woman's Aid Society. The institute has just closed a successful series of lectures on social topics in the course of which the tenement house problem, tuberculosis, factory inspection and women in industry were lectured upon by specialists and discussed by the audience. Lectures, a juvenile library, dances, religious teaching, concerts and dramatic

performances make the sum of the year's achievements.

Co-operation in Memphis.—Instead of starting a separate institution to meet sectarian needs, the Jewish Memorial Hospital Pavilion Association of Memphis, Tennessee, will build a pavilion at the Christian Baptist Memorial Hospital and thus strengthen an existing work and place their own on an efficient basis without all the trials incident to a thoroughly new enterprise. It is interesting to note such a fusion of interest. Dr. M. Goltman of Memphis seems to feel that the project will work out successfully and is organizing the association that will carry out the plan.

Care of the Insane in Japan.—In the care of the insane as in all other fields, Japan is making rapid progress. The *Bidines* or village asylum is the type found at Iwakoura, a short distance from Kioto Iwakoura is the Japanese Gheel, and like the Belgian town it also has its legends. Centuries ago an emperor built it as a thank offering for the miraculous recovery of his daughter from insanity. This village for the insane has one hundred inhabitants, chiefly general paralytics, who are taught the cultivation of the soil, domestic work and carpentry, caning, laundry work, kitchen gardening and the care of domestic animals.

The buildings and the furnishing are entirely Japanese, the latter consisting chiefly of straw mats. The violent patients are isolated. The infirmary is a separate building, a museum shows the old instruments of torture, the ancient plans of the colony and the work of the inmates. The development of the insane asylums in Japan has generally been along the same lines. Founded by individual initiative they have later been taken up by the state or municipality. In order to be admitted the patient undergoes a medical examination. The municipality, which decides whether the patient should be assigned to the city (public) asylum or to one of the seven private asylums in Tokio. The "Tokio Inn" and "Fou Sou-jarno" accommodate one thousand patients. Statistics show the need for as much more accommodation.

Hebrew Orphan Asylum, New York.—At the annual meeting of the Hebrew Orphan Asylum, New York, at which Louis Stern presided, the old trustees were re-elected with the addition of Messrs. Max Grifenhagen and Edward Necarsulmer. President McGowan of the Board of Aldermen complimented the society upon their work. There are at present 1214 children in the institution beside those placed out under the supervision of the Asylum. The expenditures last year exceeded \$200,000.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

LAUNCHING THE LOWELL

Commissioner Robert W. Heberd successfully launched his new boat—The Lowell—at the yards of the Verdon Company on the west shore of Staten Island on Monday afternoon of this week. A large company of public officials and private citizens witnessed the interesting ceremony. Borough President Cromwell of Richmond represented the municipal government in the few brief addresses—even fewer and briefer than had been planned, for the very sufficient reason that tide, like time, waits for no man and the impatient builders became anxious lest the ebbing tide should fall too low for comfort and safety.

New York bay received her new charge, however, with every indication of smiling content. The Lowell is the first boat which the city has built for the Department of Charities in a quarter of a century and the first designed and built especially for patients and passengers rather than for passengers and freight. She is to travel at twelve miles an hour and is to touch daily in her hospital rounds each of the five boroughs of the city. The name which she bears honors the city in perpetuating the memory of Josephine Shaw Lowell, one of the noblest of the women who have anxiously thought and courageously fought and triumphantly wrought in her service.

On the return to the city a startling collision occurred which fortunately, however, had no very serious results except

to the vessels concerned. The Thomas S. Brennan, the large and well-tried steamer which has been long in the department's service, had on board some three hundred of the invited guests. A sudden fog coming in from the sea had shut out the brilliant, sunny sky which had made the afternoon an ideal one for the launching and from this fog there came the great prow of the Trinidad liner Maraval, bearing down at right angles on the star-board side of the Brennan just aft of amidships.

Reversed engines and a released anchor on the Maraval softened the blow and only the decks and outer woodwork on the Brennan suffered—but this was a mass of wreckage and a projecting timber tore a hole in the bows of the colliding steamer—a fathom above the water line. While the boats were wedged together, the nose of the big stranger thrust into and held by the shattered decks of the Brennan more than half of the Brennan's passengers climbed across to the more inviting deck of the larger boat which had caused the mischief, but after an examination had established the fact that the Brennan's hull and engines were uninjured many of them climbed back again and were brought safely to South Ferry by the crippled boat. The others were taken off by a tug and by the department's smaller boat, the *Fidelity*, on which some of the guests had originally taken passage from the yards. The utmost order and self-possession were shown from the moment of the collision by everyone on board. Many life

preservers were adjusted but deliberately and with mutual assistance. One newspaper account refers to excitement and hysteria but other reports are more accurate. In fact there was not the slightest evidence of either unless the crying of a frightened infant on the lower deck could be so regarded. Certainly there was not even the most embryonic panic. One passenger in jumping to the deck of the Maraval sprained his ankle but with this exception there were no reported personal injuries or inconveniences. The accident indeed came very near bringing the day to a tragic end but in its fortunate outcome it can scarcely be said even to have marred the memorable and enjoyable occasion.

ILLINOIS STATE

CHARITIES INVESTIGATION

The political controversy over the Illinois state charitable and reformatory institutions has reached a stage where little action may be expected until the next session of the Legislature in January. A main object, however, seems to have been pretty well accomplished—to supply a large amount of heat for the gubernatorial campaign. The legislative investigating committee has turned in a lengthy and bitter report; the enemies of Governor Deneen have secured the passage in the lower house of a bill to replace the present Board of Charities by a board of control; and the senate, refusing to take hasty action on the bill, has appointed a commission of its own members to study the question and report at the next session.

The report of the investigating committee shows little more than the partisanship of one faction of the Republican party against the administration of Governor Deneen. The disclosures of shocking accidents in the asylum for the feeble minded, of extreme cruelty at the state reformatory, of scandal in the purchase of supplies, appear to be made not with the purpose of improving conditions but primarily to discredit the administration and especially the governor himself, even if in so doing the

best board of charities the state has ever had must also be discredited.

If there had been a real desire to remedy abuses, and prevent conditions responsible for some of the occurrences disclosed, there would have been ample opportunity for it to manifest itself more than a year ago when the urgent pleas of the State Board of Charities for appropriations to carry out much needed improvements found a deaf ear at the Legislature. Referring to an accident at the asylum for the feeble minded, in which an epileptic child was the victim, the investigating committee recommends that a state epileptic colony be established to care for these unfortunates whose presence simply impairs the efficiency of institutions not designed for their proper care. The time to show advocacy of this much needed improvement was when the State Board of Charities last year appealed for an appropriation for this very purpose. Cruelty at the Pontiac reformatory has very properly been rebuked by the committee, which points out the administrative difficulties in an institution where both youthful offenders and hardened criminals are confined. If there has been an earnest desire to remedy this situation, why has the legislature never dealt with the real problem. Criticism of business methods in the purchase of supplies is made. Yet it is proposed to legislate out of existence the very Board of Charities which has for months been working out a new and centralized scheme of business administration.

Everyone agrees that the conditions are and have been bad. It is because they appreciate this fact that the governor and his Board of Charities have so earnestly sought the improvements which have been denied by the very Legislature which now cries for "humanity" toward the state's wards.

Compared with the great reform of the Cook county charity service brought about ten years ago, the tactics of the Legislature stand in striking contrast. The co-operation of experts and disinterested citizens, used so successfully by the county commissioners, is strangely lacking in the state situation. Instead

of appointing a commission of experts or even seeking the personal assistance of any of them, a committee of its own members was selected by the Legislature, certainly not for any special qualification which any of them are known to have for such a technical task. When the committee was appointed the members not only had the presumption to assume that they needed no aid, but ignored and discredited the skilled state officials whose aid was available. Dr. Frank Billings, Miss Julia Lathrop and Dr. Emil Hirsch are widely known for their expert knowledge of the best treatment given the insane and other dependents in our own and other lands. Yet these three members of the state Board of Charities were subjected by the legislative committee to the most unfair cross-examination and the most unjust abuse. Their explanation of existing conditions was not sought; their suggestions of the way to improve those conditions was not taken into account.

The Board of Charities has published a special bulletin, carefully enumerating no less than thirty-eight specific lines of improvement that have been inaugurated during the term of the present board and administration. Again are reiterated the demands for appropriations for more efficient equipment for the work of the board, for an epileptic colony, and for a state sanatorium for curable consumptives. To show its entire accord with the spirit of real reform the board submits tentative recommendations for new and modern systems of administration. These carefully considered suggestions are in sharp contrast with the bill for a board of control which was hastily put together and rushed through the lower house. The board urges the need for a thorough study of all the various plans proposed and suggests a conference to be held in October for this purpose.

This controversy in Illinois is of large importance, and a careful and concise analysis of the provisions of the bill passed by the lower house and of the alternative recommendations of the State Board of Charities will soon appear in this magazine.

TO REDUCE INFANT MORTALITY

The New York Milk Committee has laid plans to become an important factor in the summer feeding of babies by opening on June 15 seven infants' milk depots, each in charge of a trained nurse who, in addition to the dispensing of modified milk, will visit the neighboring families and carry on an educational campaign among the tenement mothers. Settlements, churches and day nurseries are co-operating, especially in furnishing quarters for consultations on infant hygiene. The estimated cost of each depot, including the nurse's salary, rent, equipment and maintenance, is from \$1,300 to \$1,500 a year. This does not take into account the proceeds resulting from the sale of the milk, which, it is hoped, may pay part or all of salaries and expenses, especially in depots the rent of which has been supplied free.

The committee has made a contract with the Slawson-Decker-Sheffield-Farms Company by which the company agrees to supply it at cost with certified or inspected milk, modified according to its formulae, put up in three, six and eight-ounce sterilized bottles containing individual feedings and to deliver this milk to as many depots as the committee can provide, and only through them. The committee will fix the price, endeavoring to find one within reach of the poor, yet high enough to prevent loss on the part of those handling it.

But although the furnishing of pure milk, modified to suit infants, is important, the vital thing, in the opinion of the committee, is to bring home to mothers the importance of breast feeding. "In its normal development the milk depot should sell less and less modified milk to babies and more and more whole milk to mothers, becoming ultimately a clean milk depot from which food is fed through the mother to the child," writes Wilbur C. Phillips, secretary, in a convincing article published in the *Medical Record* for May 30.

The article is entitled *A Plan for Reducing Infant Mortality in New York City*. The description is local but the

plan, as the author points out, is applicable to any American city. The chief element is co-operation; the fundamental suggestion is the establishment on a large scale of "consultations on infant hygiene," the object of which should be the education of mothers in the care of babies up to two years of age, the encouragement in every way of breast feeding, and the education of mothers in pasteurizing, sterilizing and modifying milk in their homes.

In France, where such consultations on infant mortality have been long established, it has been proved by startling and convincing figures, that the death rate goes down amazingly. Not only are the established infant death rates of American cities—for nine cities, in 1900, more than 300 deaths per 1,000 births—made to appear frightful and unnecessary, but the natural mode of feeding and the education of mothers in caring for their babies, have in some cases reduced the death rate to zero. Thus, in 1898, when the death rate from diarrhoea in Paris ran as high as 285 in certain weeks, at the Clinic Tarnier where from 90 to 140 infants were looked after, not one died from this dread disease. That this was not due to pure chance is shown by its exact repetition in the five following years. Figures for many other cities, all point to the same tale,—197 per cent reduced in one year to 120, then to 50; 163 reduced to 32, 116 to 47, 288 to 151.

According to the founder of the French classes or clinics for mothers, the late Dr. Budin, the essentials for this work consist only of a pair of scales and the services of a devoted physician. A practical plan for classes in America would, according to Mr. Phillips, start so simply as the gathering of twenty or twenty-five mothers in a church, a settlement, a day nursery, or some similar existing institution. There they would be met and taught by volunteer physicians who, to economize time and effort, might work together in the same class, giving say one hour of the week or one hour every other week for a fixed group of infants. Babies would be weighed weekly at the consultations. In attend-

ing these consultations, mothers would be stimulated not only by the desire to exhibit their babies, but to see the babies of their neighbors and to compare them. Each baby would be stripped and examined in the presence of all the mothers which would give the doctor an opportunity to make practical illustrations of his lesson. A spirit of rivalry could be created by holding baby shows with prizes. Volunteers could be obtained to act as secretaries to the physicians and keep the weights and statistics of the babies. Charts showing the natural and actual increase in each infant's weight would be kept and shown to the mothers as an incentive to care properly for their children. Although at first mothers might be slow in going to the consultations, experience has shown that the clinics would surely become recognized as they were talked of in the neighborhood, and would gradually take a place as permanent educational institutions.

It is very important that the charts and tables and in fact all records be kept uniformly and for this a central clearing-house would become necessary. It is quite likely that the Department of Health will assume this responsibility. If not, Mr. Phillips suggests that the New York Milk Committee be drawn upon. The value of the statistics collected in such a manner is scarcely open to question.

PROBATION IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Senator Dillingham, chairman of the Committee on the District of Columbia, has reported favorably a bill for the establishment of a probation and parole system for the District of Columbia. It provides for an unpaid probation commission consisting of the two judges of the Supreme Court of the district holding the criminal court, the two judges of the police court, the judge of the juvenile court and two residents of the district appointed by the commissioners for a term of three years each. It is to supervise and direct the enforcement of the laws relating to probation and parole, with power to make and en-

force suitable rules and regulations for carrying them into effect. It may appoint a chief probation officer, to be known as a "chief probation guardian," at a salary of \$1,800 *per annum*, three other officers, one of them a woman, at a salary of \$1,200 *per annum*, and three assistants, one a woman, at a salary of \$900 each, and a clerk. It may also appoint voluntary probation guardians.

The criminal courts of the district are to be given power except in case of a few serious offenses, to suspend the execution of sentence and place persons under the charge and supervision of the probation commission during the suspension of sentence.

The chief probation guardian is to visit the jail, workhouses, reformatory and penal institutions to which prisoners of the District of Columbia are sent, for the purpose of ascertaining the character and habits of prisoners and "whenever it shall seem to him that a prisoner or inmate has so reformed that he will become a good citizen, and may with propriety and safety to the community and with benefit to himself be released from custody upon parole, he shall certify that fact to the probation commission." The commission may recommend to the court which imposed the sentence, that the prisoner be paroled, and the court may release the prisoner upon parole, upon such terms and conditions as it may prescribe. Upon the termination of a period of probation or parole, the probation guardian is to make to the court a statement of the conduct of the person while on probation or parole. The terms probation and parole are defined as follows:

"The term probation shall mean the state of a person the execution of whose sentence has been suspended, and the term parole shall mean the release of a person from further serving a sentence imposed." The use of these terms is in harmony with that recommended by the New York State Probation Commission.

Senator Dillingham, in his report recommending the passage of the bill, makes a strong argument for the use of probation and parole. A careful estimate made by him suggests that if the

proportion of convicted offenders placed on probation is similar to that in various states, not less than three thousand would be placed on probation each year. He considers it likely that a considerable number would be paroled. While stating that the saving of character is the great object of any probation or parole system, he points out that a very considerable financial saving would result from the use of the system. The closing paragraph of the report is as follows:

The committee does not argue that the probation and parole service provided in this bill will prove a panacea for all the penal and correctional ills of the District of Columbia. It does not pretend to think that it will result in the complete reformation of all the persons put on probation or released from confinement on parole. It realizes that a certain percentage of those persons must be expected to fail. It is of opinion that in many cases not even the subject himself can be sure of his strength to avoid wrongdoing after his complete discharge. But the committee does believe that the percentage of characters saved will be not less here than in other jurisdictions where probation and parole systems have proven their worth in practical results, and that for the eighty-six per cent or more, of the number which may be put on probation or parole—whether it be 3,000, or more, or less—this bill should pass without delay.

It is to be hoped that Congress will follow the wise counsels of this report and enact the measure into law.

JUVENILE COURT REDUCING ITS NEED

The Chicago Juvenile Court seems to be making headway in reducing the necessity for its own existence. The decrease in new cases indicated by the report covering the year, December 1, 1906, to December 1, 1907, is marked, and proves one among several significant points which the report brings out.

The total number of new cases for the twelve months was 3,266, 528 less than for the previous year. This decrease is more than double that which 1906 showed over 1905. In 1908, to April 1, the number of new cases was 885. If that rate continues for the present year the total will be 2,655, a decrease of 611 from the low figure of the year just passed. The

work of the Juvenile Protective Association, the playgrounds and recreation centers, and of all the other agencies making for better conditions for the city's child life, seems to be proving effective.

Chief Probation Officer Thurston continues to believe that the probation officers have too much to do and again he urges the necessity of better individual care. This is being accomplished in some measure through the installation of thorough going record systems. The report presents interesting charts showing that the majority of Juvenile Court delinquent children are of the age of fifteen to sixteen years. Three periods of maximum tendency to lawlessness are indicated by charts, that from eleven to twelve years as truants, from fifteen to sixteen years as delinquents, and from twenty to twenty-five years on police arrests. One very interesting and significant fact is the increase of children who are becoming dependent and delinquent in the suburbs of Chicago.

Two dangers in juvenile court administration are pointed out by Mr. Thurston, and in closing the report he enlarges upon these dangers:

During the early years of the Juvenile Court there grew up a tendency on the part of juvenile officers and the public generally to think of the Juvenile Court as a cure-all for the sufferings and sins of children. The danger was that the court would be swamped by attempting to do more than belonged to it to do. Happily, this danger is now growing less and comparatively few cases are now being brought into the court that do not belong there.

A second danger is more persistent. Having once taken up the care of a delinquent boy or girl, a great danger now is that we shall try to keep them after we have failed. Boys and girls who fail to improve after careful and wise efforts of good probation officers, should be given their next chance in a good institution. The "persistent repeater" will bring inevitable disorganization into the district work of a probation officer and arouse resentment in the hearts of many of the best friends of the probation idea.

All right-minded people are willing to have boys and girls have chances to do the right thing, but after they persistently throw chances away the same people have a right to insist that these young people be really controlled, even if it takes a criminal court process to do it.

If the decrease recorded in the number of new cases filed means that probation officers, police and citizens generally are failing to do their full duty, and, as a consequence, the children of Cook county are increasingly neglected, this decrease is a sign of failure and should stimulate all concerned to a more faithful performance of duty. If, on the other hand, the decrease, instead of being accompanied by increasing neglect of the welfare of the children, is in fact attended by better and more discriminating care of dependent and delinquent children, the decrease in numbers is a sign of genuine progress. It is perhaps too early to say with authority which interpretation is the true one. In either case, the needs of the children are still far greater than the service of officials and citizens combined, and there should be no cessation of effort in their behalf. Three thousand two hundred and sixty-six new cases of dependent and delinquent children in one year in any twentieth-century city is just 3,266 too many. Every one of them is the product of one or more imperfect institutions. Every one of them is a challenge to us to build such homes, schools, business organizations, political administrations and churches that no child shall be thrown out as a waste by-product of our imperfect social machinery. It is "up to" this community to prove, during the coming year, that we can continue to reduce the percentage of new cases in the Juvenile Court and at the same time raise the standard of welfare for the average child.

THE HANDBOOK OF CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION

For every great reform the first requisite is knowledge of the facts. Acting upon this belief, the National Consumers' League has, since 1902, issued annually a Handbook of Child Labor Legislation,¹ in which an attempt is made to state accurately and in a form easily used by the general reader, the laws currently in force throughout the country, with regard to child labor and school attendance. In view of the sorry lack of available up-to-date official data, this little book compiled by Josephine C. Goldmark, is the most valuable contribution of the year to the subject with which it deals.

Since the reading of statutes is one of the most painful and wearisome uses to which the intellect can be applied, the need for such reading is reduced, in the

¹ Reprints of the Handbook may be had on application to the National Consumers' League, 105 East 22nd street, New York city.

Handbook, to the single instance of the standard child labor law, a model bill compiled from the best provisions of the best laws in force in the United States.

The contents condensed into sixty-four pages consist of short chapters on the age limit, the hours of labor, compulsory education, educational requirements, working-papers, dangerous occupations, enforcing officials and penalties, and other relevant topics.

The edition for 1908, like that for last year, appears as a supplement to the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. It accompanies the publication for May.

When the first edition of the Handbook,—a four page leaflet,—was published, in 1902, the hope was expressed by the Consumers' League that, by the close of the present decade, in 1910, the uniform minimum age for beginning work might be fixed at fourteen years in all the states and the District of Columbia.

To achieve this modest gain in the now remaining eighteen months of the decade, Congress and the legislatures of no less than nineteen states, together with Hawaii and New Mexico, would have to enact legislation. Since, however, Congress is still in session and a child labor bill which has passed both Senate and House is now in conference, while the legislatures of Georgia and Louisiana meet during the present summer and more than thirty legislatures will be in session next year, the proposed undertaking though large is by no means impossible.

The legislatures of Georgia and Louisiana will doubtless remove their respective states from this black list within a few months. In Louisiana girls have been forbidden for several years to work in mills before reaching the age of fourteen years. In that state, therefore, the proposed change would merely affect boys in mills (they may now work at the twelfth birthday), and girls and boys engaged in commerce.

In Georgia, the children affected would be much more numerous if the age for beginning work were fixed at the fourteenth birthday; for under the present

Georgia statute, orphans and the children of widows may legally be employed in cotton mills at the tender age of ten years, and all children, girls as well as boys, may work at the twelfth birthday. Since illegitimate children and the children of deserted wives are counted as orphans, the body of children free to work at the tenth birthday is considerable.

Even worse is the plight of these classes of bereft children in South Carolina, where no statutory limit is set to the age at which they may work. Moreover, during the months of June, July and August,—peculiarly trying months in the hot climate of the southern states,—all children may work legally in cotton mills in South Carolina, irrespective of how young they may be, if they have attended school four months in the year, and can read and write.

North Carolina sets the thirteenth birthday as the minimum for beginning work "except for apprentices." This exception recalls the sinister fate of the children of a century ago in England who were taken from the workhouses and apprenticed to the English cotton mill owners to live in horrible conditions within the mills themselves until,—after nearly a half century,—Lord Shaftesbury succeeded in freeing them from their terrible thralldom. There is no mention in the North Carolina statute of any protective measures for these little American apprentices, less than thirteen years old, and North Carolina, by reason of creating this new class of workers, takes its place with Georgia and South Carolina, in a group by itself, of states which permit the employment of children in manufacture at a more tender age than is set by any other state.

In contrast with this little group of three states, is the very large group in which children may begin to work at the twelfth birthday. In this group New England is represented by Vermont and New Hampshire, the last remaining northern states in which twelve-year-old children may work—even, as here, in vacation and out of school hours—in cotton mills. The sinister point in this exemption is the common failure to get the

workers back into school when their exhausting "vacation" spent in the cotton mills is over, and the schools reopen.

The Pacific coast is represented in this group by California where children twelve years old may work in stores and factories in vacation and, in case of a disabled parent at all times; and by Oregon where children of twelve years may engage in "any suitable occupation" under supervision of the board of child labor inspectors, during any vacation longer than two weeks.

The Northwest is represented in this group by North Dakota and Wisconsin. Both states safeguard the twelve-year-old working children by requiring exemptions to be granted in due form, North Dakota by the local school authorities, and Wisconsin by the county or municipal judge, or the judge of the juvenile court, or by the register of probate of the county, or the commissioner of labor or one of his subordinates. In both cases, however, the state avowedly places upon these children the burden of relieving the poverty of families which, in more progressive states, are relieved by the community either through public or private agencies more suitable to the task than children of twelve years of age.

Pennsylvania permits children twelve years of age to work in bituminous mines, safeguarding them only to the meager extent of requiring in the compulsory education law that children to the fourteenth birthday shall attend school seventy per cent of the full school year.

New York lets children twelve years old work in vacation in stores, in villages and third class cities, under an amount of red tape used in proving their age which reduces these excepted workers to a trivial number.

California, New Hampshire, North Dakota, New York, Pennsylvania, Vermont, Wisconsin, thus all place a (more or less futile) restriction upon the work of their children between the ages of twelve and fourteen years, and make it the duty of the educational authorities to enforce school attendance during the school year.

Nevada, having few children and no indoor occupation which calls for their

work, has no protective legislation for them except the requirement that they attend school fifteen weeks in the year, of which eight weeks must be consecutive.

All the remaining states in this black list are southern states,—Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Maryland, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia and West Virginia. Indeed, it may truthfully be said that, with the honorable exceptions of Kentucky and Tennessee, the Southern states have hitherto treated the twelfth birthday as the appropriate time for boys and girls to enter upon the life of toil wherever they have not as in North and South Carolina and Georgia thus regarded an even more tender age.

Now, vigorous, intelligent, self-governing citizens cannot be developed from young children who work indoors all the time when they are not in school, any more than from the little toilers who work in mills instead of going to school. That great, rich states such as California, and Wisconsin should place upon the slender shoulders of twelve-year-old boys and girls the task of maintaining decrepit relatives, is a disgrace to those states, and reveals a weirdly perverted public opinion as to the relative scope of filial duty and public duty.

From this brief review of the situation with regard to our present statutes governing the age at which children may begin to work, the reader may judge how great is the need of an immediate energetic campaign of education applied to legislators and their constituents on behalf of the rising generation of our citizens.

JUVENILE COURTS IN FRANCE

France is still actively engaged in perfecting a juvenile court and parole system. The scheme of French government is such as to make the general establishment of separate courts almost impossible, requiring as it would, a radical departure from procedure as old as the government. Nor did many of the conservatives sympathize with the suggestion that the American plan be adopted until E. Fellows Jenkins, as a representative of the American socie-

ties for the prevention of cruelty to children which are in this country intimately associated with the children's courts, went there to explain the procedure, and French experts had come here for the purpose of making their own investigations. Prominent among the latter are the great Abbé Klein and M. Ed. Julhiet of Paris. Both of these gentlemen are very fervent advocates of the American institution and have urged its duplication in France. As a result these campaigns succeeded in urging the *procureur de la republique* (or the attorney-general) during December, 1906, to direct that cases of children charged with crime be heard before four special *juges d'instruction*. There soon followed an official order that children's cases be given even more careful consideration by being heard in the eighth *cour correctionnelle*, where it is expected the practice will develop on the American plan of procedure.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES

The chief feature of the tenth annual meeting of the New Hampshire Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Portsmouth, was an address by the Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane of Kalamazoo, Mich., on Social Conditions in our Cities and Towns, Their Causes and Betterment. Previous to the meeting Mrs. Crane had spent several days with Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter of Concord, chairman of the State Board of Charities and Correction, in securing a fund of information on local conditions, through visits to state and county institutions. Speaking from this information, she complimented the state on the Marston tramp law which makes the tramp afraid to go to New Hampshire and be dependent upon himself while there; she made a strong plea for state care of dependent children and urged the placing out of children in homes after as brief a term of institutional life as possible; she found the county almshouses deserving of favorable comment, but urged that prisoners be separated from the indigent poor.

The State Industrial School came in for sharp criticism. Mrs. Crane found it the saddest, sorest spot in the whole state. The boys should have manual

training, she said, instead of being compelled to work for their own support in making hosiery. And in this work which they are doing, she charged the institution with employing children younger than the child labor law permits and of failing to fit them for self-support after they leave the school.

Superintendent Gardner of the Franklin Orphans' Home, reported for the Committee on Dependent Children that there are 638 children in the state dependent upon public funds, including 85 at the School for Feeble-Minded and 59 delinquents at the State Industrial School. He asserted that a child is in far better condition to be placed in a new home after a few months' training in an institution, than if it be sent directly from its own home.

Discussion following the report of the committee on penal institutions showed a strong sentiment for the separation of prisoners from the indigent poor in the county almshouses and for a classification of prisoners in county jails. Dr. Bancroft urged a thorough medical examination of prisoners, particularly with reference to their mental condition, illustrating his plea with cases where severe punishment had been visited upon prisoners apparently impossible of control who were found afterward to be demented.

A strong plea was made for the custodial care of feeble-minded women, and report was made by Dr. Little of the work at the School for Feeble-Minded at Laconia where practically all of the farm work is done by boys and there are interesting courses in basketry and mat-weaving.

Dr. Crossman in his report on the insane called attention to the large number of imbeciles now cared for at the state hospital and urged a separate institution for them in connection with the State School for the Feeble-Minded. He holds that alcoholism is the cause of a very large percentage of insanity cases and advocated longer periods of treatment for such cases. There are 994 insane persons in New Hampshire, 800 at the State Hospital and the remainder distributed at the ten county farms. There are now four charity organization societies in the state.

Public Health

James Jenkins

Secretary Committee on Prevention
of Tuberculosis, Brooklyn

Co-operation instead of being the thief of time, as one of our witty friends remarks, ought to be the father of systematized organization. To have co-operation in social work each branch must understand what other branches are doing, and one branch in the East must understand what another branch of the same work is doing in the West, North or South. Nothing brings about a better spirit of co-operation or actual, systematized organization than a national conference. As spoken words are always more effective than written ones, so the real acquaintance with other men and women who are tackling the same evils that we are, is much more valuable than volumes of correspondence. It is this very touching of hands and minds at the conference that seems to many of us the most valuable asset of the annual meeting.

The public health section at Richmond this year was a new department and quickly proved its value. The first meeting on Thursday, May 7, was attended by a small but interested audience. Dr. Charles R. Granby of Norfolk, Va., read an excellent paper on The Consumptive Negro. He showed that there is a physical predisposition or lack of resistance to the disease in the Negro, and that because of his mental condition he is unable to meet the conditions of American city life which confront him. Dr. Granby thinks that overcrowding and poor food are two of the main causes for the prevalence of tuberculosis among the Negroes. Coupled with these bad conditions is the fact that the Negroes are unwilling to persevere in taking any cure. Dr. Granby thinks the task is to teach the Negroes that they must lead moral and temperate lives; that they must have country air instead of the squalid surroundings of city life, and that they must give up the dance hall and bar room. This education should begin with the child.

Frank J. Bruno of Colorado Springs, urged the establishment of a national sanatorium in that state as the most economic plan to relieve the present bad conditions. According to Mr. Bruno, the Rocky Mountain region is the preferable location for a national sanatorium. The speaker did not think that such an institution would be a cure for the evils that exist, but that it would be a source of tremendous benefit. In a general discussion which came up after Mr. Bruno had finished his paper, the interesting idea of a chain of national sanatoriums in various parts of the country was brought up.

The second conference on Friday was addressed by Miss Harriet Fulmer, superintendent of Visiting Nurses' Association, Chicago. Miss Fulmer's idea is that housing reform is the most important thing in fighting tuberculosis. She also considers housing reform a national question. In the course of her paper Miss Fulmer gave this striking sentence: "First aid to the injured remedies are fearless health officials in every community, a public health committee in every city."

Two very interesting papers were read Saturday morning on the social work conducted at the Massachusetts General Hospital and social work at Johns Hopkins Hospital. These two papers were similar in nature, showing the splendid work done by these two hospitals in social work; as Dr. Emerson of the Johns Hopkins Hospital said:

When a hospital accepts a patient it agrees to do everything in its power to cure that patient of the ailment which he has. If the patient needs eyeglasses or more sanitary home surroundings it is the duty of the hospital to see that he gets them. The scope of the hospital is much broader than formerly and one by one throughout the country the various prominent hospitals are accepting this theory.

The public health meetings were brought to a close on Monday by the reading of the committee report of the chairman, Walter Lindley, M. D., director of the California Hospital, Los An-

geles. Dr. Lindley's paper was extremely interesting and covered a wide range of subjects from the spread of disease by vermin to the force behind the prohibition wave which is sweeping the country. Dr. Lindley said anent the prohibition wave:

The cherry looks nice in the bottom of a glass and there is something very attractive in the vivid green of the mint as it projects from a long goblet on a warm day, but it looks as though we were soon going to have an opportunity to renew the experience of our boyhood days when our principal beverages were sassafras tea and butter-milk.

Dr. Lindley thinks that the playground movement is one of the greatest factors in the fight against tuberculosis, beginning as it does with the child and teaching it chest expansion and the love of fresh air and outdoor life. Dr. H. W. Wiley, chief of the Bureau of Chemistry, United States Department of Agriculture, gave an interesting paper on The Pure Food Law. Dr. Wiley believes that the conditions should be remedied by state legislation which should require drug stores within the state to sell only in standard prescriptions pharmacopoeial articles. The final effect on the public health of purity of foods and drugs would be first, to ward off disease and second, to effect its more speedy cure. Dr. Wiley called attention to the drug habit and said that "we should rather hear an infant cry all night than follow it to its grave from soothing syrup dosing."

Rev. Beverley Warner, D. D., rector of Trinity Church, New Orleans, closed the section by reading a paper on The Negro's Outlook for Health in which he seems to take a rather dark view of the situation. Dr. Warner believes that the prophet of hope for the Negro's future is the sanitary reformer equally with the minister of religion, holding that moral problems are quite as much the duty and task of the political and social student as of the priest and preacher; that immorality is often the immediate product of unsanitary and unhygienic conditions.

Walter A. Wyckoff, Experimenter in Reality

From an investigation into the manner of life of the man who labors with his hands, to which he gave himself unstintedly, saving or withholding himself in no material way except as the buoyancy of strong Christian fortitude and broad scientific philosophy may be material, the life of Professor Walter A. Wyckoff of Princeton University which has just come to an untimely close takes its most distinguishing tone.



WALTER A. WYCKOFF

In the field of sociological study where the instrument of progress is personal investigation, the practice is too apt to be to evade the necessity of complete personal dedication to the work, and to supplement a more or less close survey with impressions and conclusions from hearsay testimony. In the two volumes of *The Workers* in which Professor Wyckoff set down the facts of his eighteen months' service in the great army of unskilled labor *en tour* from Connecticut to

California, are expressed as never before or since the thoughts and emotions, hopes and despairs of the man behind the shovel in the ditch, piling bark in a lumber camp, dipping binders in the paint tanks of the huge harvester factories of Chicago, or for days gleaning the ways of that great city for scraps of work, the offals of meanest employment in order to eat,—to barely live. More casual investigators have tried to repeat his experiment but lacking his sincerity of purpose and sometimes straining only for literary honors, their results have been meager and ephemeral. As the editor of the *New York Post* remarks in commenting on the worth of Professor Wyckoff's accomplishment: "Your present day observer is primarily on the hunt for 'copy'," concluding that "The Workers is still by far the best book in its field." And it is that, because it is a record of complete and sympathetic participation in all the conditions, privations and occasional joys of this large section of society.

From philosophy Professor Wyckoff's interest while still an undergraduate at Princeton extended to social subjects, and for three years after graduation during which he traveled around the world spending considerable time in Germany and Japan, his studies of social conditions were continued in a more or less academic fashion, until in 1891, struck by the bookish quality of his conceptions, and his health demanding an open air life, he undertook this "experiment in reality," faring forth from a town in western Connecticut on foot, penniless and with only a suit of working clothes and a bundle. Getting his first work at West Point where he joined a gang razing some old buildings, he stayed a week, then pushed on until the exhaustion of his savings from that job required him to

stop and seek another. And thus swinging back and forth between pressing need that forced acceptance of any employment to the affluence of a few dollars, the journey across the continent was effected.

Not until five years afterwards was the record of this trip published when it appeared serially in *Scribners*, and was then issued as a book, reaching in both forms a wide popularity which has been sustained. Another book, *A Day with a Tramp and Other Days* appeared later supplementing the first publications. The charm and forcefulness of his style are increasingly apparent in his last published writings which deal with a less vital topic, the Arctic regions, where he spent some time.

Writing of him as a lovable as well as an admirable man one of Professor Wyckoff's colleagues at Princeton says:

I sometimes think that people do not appreciate—especially men in the branch of science in which he was engaged—just what he tried to do, and how valuable, humanly, his contribution was. I have heard it said: "After all he could not actually acquire the day-laborer's point of view,—he was born of a different class, he looked at life in a different way, he had different sensibilities and feelings." This was true, of course, but it does not seem to occur to them that by preparing this long and arduous experiment and bringing to bear upon his experiences a scientifically trained mind he was at least in a better position to know than those who made all their studies of men from the point of view of a library and statistics. As a scientist Wyckoff also studied statistics, also viewed man as a unit; but in addition to this he made a study of men as men,—not merely as phenomena for sociological inductions, but as human beings whom he wished to help. Of the human side of life and his human part in it he never lost sight. It was as an agent of usefulness rather than as an exponent of theories that he did his work in the world, that he will be longest remembered by those who knew him best.

Seward Park

Julia Richman

In September, 1903, I was assigned to duty as superintendent of the schools in the section near Seward park in New York city. It took only two days to discover that the park was filled with many boy truants and non-attendants. Systematic "raids" were held, and many boys were thereby placed in school. Closer investigation then showed that the professional loafer, the "fagin," used Seward park as a recruiting station. This proved so flagrant an evil that a special detective was detailed to my office by the police commissioner in order to enable me to run down the "fagins" and rescue my boys. As is so often the case, it was far easier to get information about wrongdoing than to get evidence against the wrong-doer. We succeeded in "running down" only one or two of the leaders, but we succeeded in "running out" of the park all suspicious characters. This was during 1904.

A change in the office of police commissioner robbed me of the services of my special "plain-clothes man," and before long the old conditions returned. An appeal to the commissioner was dismissed on the ground that he had an insufficient force.

Not only were the "fagins" making thieves of my boys, but reports came to me from some of the school principals that indecencies were being practiced by and upon some of our girls. Feeling that these conditions were too serious to be permitted to continue, I appealed to the board of directors of the Educational Alliance to use its influence with the park commissioner (Mr. Pallas) to check the growing evils. Marcus M. Marks was made chairman of the committee. He made several unsuccessful attempts to secure a conference between Mr. Pallas and our committee. Finally, I secured from the commissioner a promise to meet me at a stated time in Seward park. He kept the appointment.

David Blaustein, at that time superin-

tendent of the Educational Alliance, in full sympathy with my efforts and the action of the board, personally accompanied me to the park in order to point out to me and to present to me Mr. Pallas, whom I had never before seen. So far as I recall the requests I made at that time, they were these:

First—To arrange schedule hours for the use of the gymnasium oval, as follows:

9-12 A. M. men and boys over 16.

12-1 P. M. boys under 16.

1-3 P. M. men and boys over 16.

3-6 P. M. boys under 16.

The objects of this schedule were (a) to keep school boys out of the park during school hours; (b) to give the school boys no opportunity to be thrown into association with such of the loafers as frequented the gymnasium.

Second—To permit visitors to occupy the benches inside the oval, or else to place those benches outside.

(The oval was closed at six or seven o'clock, causing frightful congestion outside during the warm evening hours.)

Third—To open the pavilion for mothers and babies during the evening.

Fourth—To provide additional lighting facilities, as semi-darkness in parks is the main cause of indecencies.

Fifth—To keep men away from the girls' playground.

(Men are never allowed to go within the enclosure, but it was the custom of many to sit or stand facing the swings, making signs or remarks which encouraged bold girls to grow bolder.)

There were some minor requests in reference to keeping the park cleaner. Mr. Pallas promised to do all he could. The only evidence of action on his part which came to me was a letter telling me that he would ask the commissioner of the Department of Water, Gas and Electricity, for more light in the park. This request if made, was never granted. After some months of discouragement I let the matter go, regular school duties crowding this out.

In the spring of 1906, Miss McLean, one of the park attendants in charge of the children's playground, called upon me upon the suggestion of Louis Stoiber,

and revealed to me conditions of indecency and immorality in the neighborhood of the swings and near the entrance to the girls' baths which are unprintable. She told me that she had reported the matter to some one above her in authority, and that she had been informed that her business was to look after the park property and obey park regulations, and that these other matters were not her affair. (These are not her own words, which I cannot reproduce after so long a time, but they tell practically why she came to me.)

I advised her to call in the S. P. C. C. to throw upon them the responsibility of protecting the innocent children and of punishing the offenders, both the wayward girls, and the vile men. I do not recall now who made the request of the S. P. C. C., Miss McLean or I, but two of their agents took charge. By secretizing themselves in the attendants' cottage near the entrance to the playground, they secured enough evidence to send several girls to the New York Training School at Hudson, and I think, to punish some of the men.

At that time or possibly a little later, I appealed to Park Commissioner Herrman to better conditions in the park. He agreed to consider my requests and do the best he could. So far as I recall, no relief was given in 1906, and in 1907 I again appealed to Mr. Herrman. He seemed willing to help, but did not seem able to comprehend the needs of the situation or to give relief. He made a request of the Department of Water, Gas and Electricity for increased lighting facilities; he supplied some of the schools near the park (three, I think) with soil and a few plants for Arbor Day celebrations; but for the removal of the park evils, he did nothing, giving as his defense that what I wished required a larger force, and that his appropriation was inadequate to maintain even the existing number of employees.

A new trouble developed during 1906. Large groups of unemployed men took possession of the park and of the entrances to the park, especially the entrances on Hester street at the corner of Essex and opposite Norfolk street. These

unemployed gradually divided into trade groups, the carpenters, the glaziers, the locksmiths and the machine operators. Contractors soon learned to come to the park to secure labor. Then the unemployed from other sections flocked to the park. This evolution back to a semblance of the old trade market is interesting and opens a new question. Shall we permit our children's playgrounds to be diverted from their purpose and function, in order to provide a labor market? Or shall we demand that our parks remain true to their obligation to the children, and that if labor markets are necessary they be provided otherwise and otherwheres?

These crowds of men filled the thoroughfares and blocked the entrances. On Hester street, occupying the full block from Essex to Norfolk stands Public School 62, one of the largest elementary schools in the world. On Norfolk street not one hundred feet from Hester is Public School 75. On Hester street one block west of Essex stands Public School 42. These three schools have an aggregate attendance of about 8,000 boys and girls, over half of whom live on the other side of the park. On their way to and from school those who cross the park were compelled to elbow their way through these masses. Many and many a time have I personally come through the crowd. Not one man would step aside to let me pass. It was absolutely necessary to push a passage through. If elbowing through a crowd develops pickpockets among boys, and coarseness and boldness among girls, who is responsible?

I appealed both to Commissioner Herrman, and to Inspector Nally of the Police Department to rid us of this burden. Upon my suggestion a roadway was created by placing two rows of park benches about twelve feet apart, the backs facing each other. The police and park attendants tried to make the men sit down, or at least remain in front of the benches, so that the improvised path might remain unencumbered. This worked for a few days, when the old trouble returned, the chief congestion being transferred to the sidewalk outside of the exit, still blocking the way.

After considerable insistence on my part, my demand that some of the worst offenders be taken to court, was followed by the arrest of about fifty. They were taken to Essex Market Court and were discharged with a fine of one cent. It is the same old story. A magistrate's unintelligent leniency, and the unwillingness of the police to make arrests, and then be "called down" by the man who occupies the bench.

During the very cold weather the park conditions are not so serious and last fall again I gave up the park problems to more pressing duties.

About three months ago the infamous Brauer case brought to light the fact that the old indecencies were again being practised in the park. I understand that it was again on the volunteer information of Miss McLean, that detectives both from the S. P. C. C. and from the seventh precinct police, secured the evidence which led to Brauer's conviction.

Brauer's case came up before a grand jury, one of the members of which is a member of the Board of Education. As a result of his communication, George S. Davis, then associate city superintendent of schools, referred the case to me, with a request that I do my best for such of the twelve girls involved as belonged under my official control. I placed the full list in the hands of Miss Jane E. Day (a special school and home visitor appointed by the Public Educational Association to aid some of the principals in my district), with a special request to find out whether the school was directly or indirectly responsible for the waywardness of these girls; whether the girls (many of them were under fourteen) had been regular attendants at school; whether they had been allowed to leave in violation of law; whether they had slipped out of school through transfers obtained untruthfully; in fact to obtain for me definite information which might lead to greater care in school management. I am glad to say that in ten out of the twelve cases the schools bore no share of the responsibility. But here is

the kernel of the whole matter. In nine of the homes, voluntarily, the parent, (most frequently the father), laid the blame for the girl's lawlessness upon Seward park.

Unfortunately, owing to the arbitrariness of a probation officer, the school influences have not been able to follow up these girls for the purpose of reclaiming them or of preventing their corrupting other girls in the neighborhood, but the occurrence, with the charge of the parents, drove me once more to attempt to purify the park. I wrote to Henry Smith, the present park commissioner, asking for an interview. A prompt reply and an early appointment were the immediate results.

My interview with Commissioner Smith was most satisfactory. He immediately realized that active steps were necessary. He saw not only the technical responsibility of his department, but the social and civic responsibility. I made it clear to him that although the control of vice and crime is vested in the Police Department, that certain regulations might be made by the Park Department which, if enforced by both the park attendants and the police, would reduce to a minimum the opportunity for the continuance of vicious practices. Mr. Smith promised to give the matter his personal attention. Immediately after my visit to Commissioner Smith, I called up Inspector Burfeind of the Police Department, and asked his co-operation. This he gave promptly and willingly. As a result Captain Schlattman of the seventh precinct called upon me at once. In a long interview, I made clear what the park needed. One patrolman was immediately placed in the park, his post being entirely within the park limits. At my request, he was directed to give his chief attention to keeping men away from the children's playground, even going so far as to prevent by-standers from facing the swings when occupied by girls. Within a few days, Commissioner Smith and his secretary, Mr. Francioli, visited the park in my company. As a result of my suggestions and of their own insight into the needs of the

situation, the following reforms were agreed upon.

1. To establish a new opening in the railing directly opposite the entrance to Public School 62, and to lay out a new path therefrom. (This when completed will do away with the necessity of further congesting the congested entrances at Norfolk street and at Essex street.)

2. To open the upper part of the pavilion to mothers and babies until 10 P. M. each day until the close of the season.

3. Commencing April 10, to restrict the use of the open air gymnasium for school boys to the hours between 12 and 1 P. M. and 3 and 6 P. M.; no large boys to be admitted during those periods, and no small boys to be admitted during the periods between 9 A. M. and 12 noon and 1 and 3 P. M.

4. To close two of the entrances to the gymnasium, so as to give the custodian full control of all who enter.

5. Commencing the same date to open the gymnasium in the evenings until 10 P. M. its use to be restricted to large boys and men.

These regulations were set forth in a letter sent to me by Commissioner Smith under date of April 6. The same letter contains the following:

When the roof of the pavilion is repaired to place around the roof some hardy drooping plants and vines.

I believe we will experiment with a slat shield of some kind in front of the swings.

(Owing to a limited appropriation, this shield has not yet been supplied.)

The drinking fountains in the center of the gymnasium will be moved to points near the railings.

I have directed our engineer to prepare plans for additional lights, and I will ask the Department of Water Supply, Gas and Electricity to furnish the same.¹

I have notified the Police Department of these new regulations in Seward park and I have no doubt they will co-operate in the matter.

Since the adoption of these regulations, the change in the park has been phenomenal. The custodian, Mr. Coleman, is performing his duty and discharging his duties in a manner worthy of the highest commendation. His subordinates are being carefully directed and supervised and are "on the job" early and late. The police, too, are doing well, or as well as one man can do patrol work over so large and congest-

ed an area. Some day, when we have a less inadequate police force (inadequate from the numerical point), Seward park should have an assignment of at least two men.

It is my practice to cross the park two or three times a day. As soon as I see the least sign of a return to old conditions, I call the attention of Mr. Coleman and of the policeman to the fact. Immediate action is the result. Twice only I have had to report to the precinct the absence of the man on post. The park attendants and the police together demand now:

1. That all men frequenting the park shall sit upon the benches, or move on. Standing about in crowds is forbidden.

2. That all bold girls are driven from the park.

3. That all men are kept away from the neighborhood of the girls' playground.

4. That big boys or men and school boys shall never use the gymnasium at the same time.

5. That big boys and men shall not be permitted to interfere with school boys at any time.

These measures practically control all the opportunities for indecencies and other moral dangers which have given me concern for so long. For the present, I am more than satisfied, I am deeply gratified; for the future—who shall say? Will the park officials and the police, continue their activity, let us say during the summer vacation, when the school influences are no longer in operation? Who can know? This much, however, I must say, now and here. That Commissioner Smith is entitled to recognition for his prompt and effectual co-operation. Personally I know nothing about conditions in other parks, but I have been told that the evils I have sought to drive out of Seward park thrive in other sections. Friends have told me of frightful improprieties carried on in Washington park, Corlears park, Hamilton Fish park, Morning-side park and East River park. If this be so, then let the facts be taken to Mr. Smith. If he should take as firm a stand in their behalf as he did in Seward park, he will come very close to being the best park commissioner we have ever had.

¹On May 25, I received word that the Department of Water Supply, Gas and Electricity is going to instal more lights in the parks.

Jottings

Cambridge Tuberculosis Camp.—Ground has been broken for the tuberculosis camp in Cambridge, Mass. The site is in Concord avenue, near the Belmont line, and both water and sewer connections will be effected with the pipes in that town. The camp will stand on an elevation fifty feet above tide-water. The building will be simple in construction, one story in height, with gable ends, with two wings, each twenty-five by fifty feet, and the front will be made almost wholly of glass. An eighteen-foot piazza will extend across the building. Administration offices, a consultation room and a laboratory will be in the center of the building, back of which there will be a roomy kitchen for the preparation of such food as the patients will need.

Primarily this institution will be a day camp; the patients will be instructed in many points of hygiene, and will receive daily treatment, but will be expected to sleep at home. Upwards of two hundred cases can be sent to the camp as soon as it is completed, which will be about July 1.

* * *

Season Opens at Sea Breeze.—The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor opened the fresh-air season on May 20, by sending 236 mothers and children from the tenements to Sea Breeze, at West Coney Island. This is the largest and the earliest first party that the association has ever sent. Last year the association gave fresh air outings to more than 27,000.

* * *

Anti-Tuberculosis Association, Woonsocket.—The leading citizens of Woonsocket, R. I., have united in forming the Anti-Tuberculosis Association. The officers are John W. Cass, president; Mrs. E. D. Clarke, first vice-president; Mrs. E. D. Clarke, first vice-president; Aram J. Pothier, treasurer, and C. W. Palmer, secretary.

* * *

Tuberculosis Registration in New York State.—Governor Hughes has signed the tuberculosis bill, whose provisions we have heretofore described, which places New York state in the front rank in so far as its statutory provisions in relation to the prevention of tuberculosis are concerned and has also signed the bill secured by the State Board of Health containing strengthening provisions.

* * *

Helping the Blind Through Work.—Distinctive work in the care of the blind is being done by a committee of the New York section of the Council of Jewish Women, under the guidance of Mrs. Anita Piza. This

committee has been working for a year, and presents as the characteristic feature of its work the physical care which has been expended on its beneficiaries to make them fit wage earners. A report just completed describes its method as beginning with the investigation of the exact condition of the eyes and proceeding to the improvement of the general home conditions and to efforts tending to make the blind person self-supporting. When the committee finds it necessary, positions are obtained for the subject's family. Seventy-two adults and five children have been assisted in the year. Two paid visitors and thirty-six volunteer visitors are employed. They have paid in all 749 visits. Co-operation of oculists, dentists and general practitioners who are specialists, has been secured and every possible attention has been paid to the physical development of the patient. Fifty-five patients needed the care of a dentist. Only three are receiving treatment for their eyes, although twenty-three were examined. Ten have been made partially self-supporting and a number wholly so.

The committee has given concerts and lectures and individuals have been taken out for walks and drives and offered simple recreation.

The plan of the committee is to study industrial conditions carefully in order to promote trades and occupations that may render the blind competent wage earners.

* * *

Jewish Work for Orphans Extended in New Orleans.—During 1907, the Association for the Relief of Jewish Widows and Orphans of New Orleans added a manual training building to its equipment and altered in important particulars the existing main building of the school. An endowment was established known as the Henry Newman Educational Trust Fund. The interest from it is to be devoted to higher education of specially gifted inmates. Gabriel Kahn who presided at the annual meeting, stated that whereas the society expended for tuition in 1902-03 \$1,014, in 1907 it expended \$15,734. The home accommodates 146 children.

* * *

Hilfsverein der Deutschen Juden Reports.—Technical secondary schools will be established in eastern countries by the gift of a quarter of a million francs from the family of the late Wolf Wisnietzky of Moscow. The gift was made to the *Hilfsverein der Deutschen Juden*, which will supervise the establishment of the schools. The *Hilfsverein* at their annual meeting reported an increase of four thousand members in a year and an increase in income from 28,000 to

138,000 marks. James Simon and Dr. Paul Nathan are at the head of the society, whose principal work is done in Palestine. Dr. Nathan recently returned from a visit to the East where he devoted a great deal of attention to the extension of educational work in the Holy Land. The *Hilfsverein's* report also shows that with emigration, education and the relief of distress, the society expended during 1907 three-quarters of a million marks.

* * *

Jewish Charities Federated in St. Louis.—Complete federation of all Jewish charities including the philanthropic work of congregations, lodges, societies and educational institutions is on foot in St. Louis. There is at present a Jewish charitable and educational union. The new federation will, of course, do away with the raising of funds by means of entertainments, and will make an endeavor to take in organizations of every kind, including the distribution of funds from St. Louis for the Cleveland Jewish Orphan Asylum, whose field is the middle West, and the National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives at Denver. Moses Fraley is the president of the movement.

* * *

An Institutional Synagogue in Chicago.—Feeling that the present building of Sinai Congregation in Chicago is unsuited for the use of an institutional synagogue, the congregation has decided to construct a temple that will enable it to carry out its ideals. The congregation hopes to celebrate its fiftieth anniversary in the new building two years hence. Sinai Congregation has always taken an active part in public movements. Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, who is identified with state and municipal movements of every kind, has always made his synagogue a meeting place and a center for any organization that has civic or philanthropic work for its object.

* * *

Convalescent Homes in Germany.—The rapid growth of convalescent homes for children in Germany within the past few years, is the result of the movement for preventive work in tuberculosis. The number of children who received treatment at the seashore in 1893, was 7,000; in 1906 the number had increased to 19,000. The number of convalescent homes at the seashore has doubled since 1893. There are at present six institutions with 284 beds for children. These are maintained chiefly by private charity.

The vacation colony societies which were first started in Hamburg, have spread throughout the empire. The largest colonies are situated in Berlin, Charlottenburg, Dresden and Hamburg. There are nineteen *Wald-erholungsttten*. These are maintained for children who cannot go to the vacation colonies because they cannot take a protract-

ed journey or because they need constant care. Such children remain with their parents or they are taken to the Woodland colonies daily where they are under the care of a physician, nurse and kindergarten teacher. This treatment is continued in the children's home. Dr. Lohse in a report on the status of convalescent homes for children, has shown how irregular this care is even in the largest cities. In 1906, 8,106 children received treatment at an expense of half a million marks. This is not more than one-eighth of the total (66,229) children cared for by these colony societies during the year. Dr. Lennhoff, the medical superintendent of the Woodland Convalescent Home in Berlin, estimates the number of children who need this care at five per cent of all children of school age, who in Germany number about 800,000. Even in the case of the 60,000 or 70,000 children the treatment is not sufficiently long. Dr. Lennhoff says that, although the adult death rate from tuberculosis has decreased during the last quarter of a century, the death rate of children dying from this disease has remained unchanged. He makes a strong plea for more adequate care to continue after dismissal from the convalescent home. He also urges the necessity of giving certain cases the opportunity to take the cure again the following year, in order to secure lasting benefit.

* * *

Union Settlement, Providence.—For some time the sociological work carried on by the Union for Christian Work, on Chestnut street, Providence, has not been under the direction of a skilled worker. In March, however, Mr. and Mrs. Carol Aronovici were called to take charge of its activities. The work has been reorganized on a new basis. The Men's Club, which for some time has been a prominent feature of the house, has steadily increased in membership and interest. Many new lines of work, such as civic reform, home improvements, and clubs of such character have been formed. The library and reading room, conducted along the lines of a public library, had hitherto been the main attractions of the house work; now house-home loan libraries to other centres of settlement work, have been made, and the watchword has been to make the collection of books of greater use to the neighborhood. Three new children's classes have been formed for the selection of books, and other classes such as book-binding and carpentry are being planned.

A sociological study of the neighborhood is being conducted through the co-operation of Miss Alice R. Collins and Miss Amey B. Eaton, a former student of the School of Philanthropy, in order to allow the work of the settlement efficiently and satisfactorily to adjust its activities to the needs of the neighborhood. Young Women's social clubs, debating societies and camera clubs planned to meet the needs of the neighborhood have also been organized.

Social Forces

By the Editor

A WORD TO SOCIAL WORKERS IN BEHALF OF LEISURE

The sum total of a person's usefulness in the world is determined quite as much by the use which he makes of his leisure as by the use which he makes of his working hours. Character is moulded in relaxation as well as under discipline; growth comes when there is freest choice, and there is the greatest opportunity for free choice in the hours of rest and refreshment, in our holy days and our holidays, in our recreations and our social intercourse, in the expenditure rather than in the earning of our income.

There are those who will object at once that their work gives them no leisure. So much the worse for them. And so much the worse for their work; for no other occupation depends so much for results on breadth of sympathy and fullness of experience as does the occupation of the social worker. Lack of leisure, however, is a subjective evil. There are no professional philanthropists or consecrated volunteers who need have no leisure. Seven hours for work, five hours for meals and necessary railway journeys, eight hours for sleep, leave four hours daily for leisure; and if there are days in which the seven hours become eleven, so that the margin disappears, there is no need that this should be the rule rather than the exception. To extend a seven hours' day regularly to eleven means simply, as a rule, bad management. It means being driven by work and not mastering it. The exact terms of the calculation, however, do not matter. Let it be four hours, as for many of us it may be, or three hours, or one, it is the fault of the individual himself if the free time, whatever its length, is wasted; if it is in no way different from the working day, if it contains no quickening, fertilizing element, wholly distinct from that which comes from the day's work, or from mere exercise.

The prime condition of fruitful leisure is the power of relaxation, the secret of "letting-go," the discovery that there are other rich experiences than those which come from the performance of our daily duties, though we must not undervalue those. It is a lamentable fact that many of us never make the discovery as a matter of personal experience. We know that afar off there are worlds of nature out-of-doors, that there is such a thing as the exhilaration of breasting the ocean surf, of guiding the sail, of walking on the green grass or climbing the mountain, that there are the songs of the nightingale and the skylark, and the laughter of little children, and the glories of God's firmament,—but we see dimly, and we hear faintly and we feel numbly, for we are needlessly

worried and anxious about many things. The spirit of leisure never enters our lives, and the half-hour we might have lived is wasted, only because we do not realize that there is no occasion to add it to our sleep—already long enough—or to our work, or to our meals, both of which already probably take more time than they require.

It is a question of attitude, a subjective difference. If we feel that this hour is an hour for enjoyment, refreshment, self-realization, then it is so. We need not be over-conscious of it, or over-conscientious about it. We need only live. Here, if anywhere, the motto, "Be happy and you will be good," has its natural application.

This frame of mind has little in common with lazy lounging. That blank drowsiness which stands to many for enjoyment of leisure belongs to the eight hours we have set aside for sleep, and especially, if you like, to the last half-hour of it when you enjoy your bed because you are beginning to feel that you ought to get up. Quiet, repose, receptivity, are implied in fruitful leisure, but not—or at least not always, for we would not be dogmatic about it—not always, or even usually, stupidity. Even when we are to enjoy a stupid book, as Dr. Crothers wishes us to do sometimes, and as is quite conceivable, it will not do to be too stupid ourselves, else we shall lose some of the rarer elements of its stupidity, and be taken in by the writer. Half waking dreams are well enough in their place, but even they have no right to all our leisure, and some of it should be spent with minds alert and fresh.

What, then, should be the end in view in the use of our leisure? Obviously, for those of us upon whom our work makes imperative and exhausting demands, the chief end should be the rounding out of our lives, the development into more complete men and women, the growth of sympathy for those deep and abiding interests which knit us to the great brotherhood, and lead us to see what Terence saw when he calmly announced that nothing that was of human interest was without personal concern for himself. It may seem like a paradox, but it is nevertheless true, that for most of us—probably for all of us, if we could rightly judge—this completeness of human life and experience must come in fragments. There are great regions in which men have lived and achieved, into which we cannot fully enter, but there is none who cannot here and there cross the boundary lines into new and strange delights, none who cannot share in culture, which is but a pretentious name for the simple feat of knowing something more than one needs to know in order to earn his daily bread, of feeling a joy in the achievements of those who do not work in one's own specialty, of seeing more than is thrust before one's eyes, and this for no other reason than that the eyes were made for seeing.

Where, then, shall we who work among the poor as our daily task find this larger life, this outside source of inspiration, this means of culture? There is no one answer. Some find it in music, and some in books, and some in art, and some in direct contact with nature, and some in the seclusion of domestic life, and some at the altars of their religion, and some rare souls breathe all these atmospheres with equal pleasure and delight. When you know what a man does with his leisure time you will have begun to make his acquaintance.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

PUTTING. PENALTY ON PROPERTY (PLACE)

Twelve "disorderlies" have been closed by law in New York city. Why only twelve, and why the notice? Because it is the latest example that good rulers rather than good laws give good government.

When the excise law in New York state was completely changed in 1896, the evils of the powers of discretion appeared paramount. The pendulum swung to the other extreme, the Excise Department being given only administrative power; many have been the amendments to correct the evils of lack of discretion. This even went so far as to impose a penalty for the criminal act of an agent; under the broad terms of "police power" this was constitutional,

But the "disorderlies" of the city continued to nominally meet the requirements of the law. The "delays of the law" made the remedies provided ineffective. So again this latest attempt at remedying this lack of discretion has been but partially successful. The legislative intent was not clearly expressed and so the penalty to which thirty-nine places were supposed to have subjected themselves was so interpreted by the courts as to affect but twelve. The penalty was the disqualification of premises for licensed traffic in liquor for one year from date of conviction of having been "disorderly."

The brief period necessary for judicial

interpretation during which the new amendment was enforced according to the legislative intent was sufficient to show its effectiveness. The Bowery and Fourteenth street districts were much affected. The activity of the police for the past year in these districts worked on lines which resulted effectively under the amendment. The change in these localities was most remarkable.

But while fear is keeping conditions improved, the supposed penalized premises are reopening under the court's interpretation and only an extreme optimist would believe that present conditions are permanent. Hence another legislature, another fight, another amendment.

TO INVESTIGATE WASHINGTON JAIL

An investigation of the District jail and workhouse at Washington, D. C., with a view to bettering conditions there, is assured by the adoption by the House of the conference report on the district appropriation bill, which contains a paragraph providing for this work.

Senator Gallinger, chairman of the Senate committee on the District of Columbia, introduced a resolution for this purpose in March, and later obtained its adoption as an amendment to the appropriation bill.

As agreed upon in conference and ratified later by both branches of Congress the paragraph reads as follows:

The president is authorized to appoint

three commissioners, one of whom may be nominated by the attorney general and one by the commissioners of the District of Columbia, who shall investigate the condition of the jail of the District of Columbia, now under the control of the attorney general, and of the workhouse within said district and other buildings adjacent to said jail; and in connection with the investigation the commissioners, under the direction of the attorney general, may visit and inspect similar institutions in other cities within the United States; and they shall report to the president on or before December 31, 1908, concerning said conditions and the expediency of removing said jail, workhouse and other buildings to other sites more appropriate for their needs and located so near to railroad lines as to secure suitable facilities for the delivery thereto of material suitable or necessary for industries to be therein carried on; and shall also make such other recommendations on the subject as may seem to them expedient; for the expenses of the commission there is hereby appropriated the sum of \$1,500, or so much thereof as may be necessary.

Mr. Gallinger desired \$5,000 for the expenses of the commission, but owing to the heavy appropriations for other purposes at this session the conferrees decided to allow only \$1,500.

CHELSEA'S CHANCE TO REBUILD RIGHTLY

Conditions leading to bad health and poor morals have been discovered in Chelsea, Mass., since the fire. The fire seems not to have been the cause of these conditions, though it doubtless has made them somewhat worse, but it has at least been the cause of their discovery. Investigation shows that a clean bill of health has been not a familiar commodity in Chelsea for some time.

Complaints were made to the State Board of Health that unhealthful conditions, due to filth and overcrowding, existed in the lodging and tenement houses of Chelsea. The state inspector for Suffolk county found the reports to be well-founded. Among foreigners in particular very bad conditions existed. For example, in a dirty cellar, poorly lighted and poorly ventilated, fourteen Poles have lived since the fire. Here they eat and sleep, at a cost per man of thirty-five cents a week for room, washing and tea. It is cheap for the men and profitable for

the owner, \$4.90 not being niggardly rental for such accommodations. In another house of five rooms, one of them a very small side room, a man, his wife, two children and thirteen lodgers made shift to live. The lodgers did their own cooking on the upper floor and there was plenty of dirt.

These matters were reported to the local board of health and prompt steps have been promised for relieving the congestion and removing the dirt. The local board has intimated that it will make a house to house canvass to see what it has to deal with and then proceed vigorously with remedial work. This is all the more necessary, for the fire left some of the worst parts of Chelsea and it will not be to the public interest to allow them to grow any worse.

There is hope that this agitation may lead to a turn in the very strong local sentiment for rebuilding Chelsea hastily—naturally carelessly and even fatally. Chelsea has long been the butt of the cheap joker in metropolitan Boston, and not without reason. It had come, in short, not to be a desirable place in which to live. There is now a chance to change its position if it will only use its costly opportunity rightly. The Legislature is passing a measure to do away with Chelsea's present government and place its affairs in the hands of a board of control composed of five citizens of the commonwealth who shall hold office till January, nineteen hundred and thirteen. The establishment of this board under good conditions promises well for those who would have Chelsea profit as far as may be from her present condition.

The class of citizens of which Chelsea may in the future boast will be largely decided by her method of rebuilding. Suggestions have already been made, but they have gone little further than the improvement of main traffic ways and some aesthetic considerations. So far so good, but the actual planning and construction of the houses and their relation to the streets and to one another is a far more important question. Broad and picturesque main ways with all the space between filled in with poorly lighted and

poorly ventilated homes will not make an attractive city. Attention must be given to the principles of town planning so well developed in Germany, Sweden, Switzerland and other European countries, and now being furthered in England through a bill recently introduced in Parliament by John Burns. These principles are little known in this country and there is unfortunately but small tendency to consider them. Chelsea knows she will be rebuilt and if she does it properly she has a chance which she will never have again to set an example which will be an object lesson for the entire country.

SOCIAL WORK **IN THE METHODIST CHURCH**

A "bill of equal rights" was adopted by the committee on the state of the church meeting in connection with the recent General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Baltimore. The committee's memorial to the conference is broad and is a marked indication of the growing spirit of social responsibility that is more and more dominating the churches. The committee say that the Methodist Episcopal Church stands:

For equal rights and complete justice for all men in all stations of life:

For the principle of conciliation and arbitration in industrial dissensions.

For the protection of the worker from dangerous machinery, occupational diseases, injuries and mortality.

For the abolition of child labor.

For such regulation of the conditions of labor for women as shall safeguard the physical and moral health of the community.

For the suppression of the "sweating system" (sweat shops).

For the gradual and reasonable reduction of the hours of labor to the lowest practical point, with work for all and for that degree of leisure for all which is the condition of the highest human life.

For a release from employment one day in seven.

For a living wage in every industry.

For the highest wage that each industry can afford and for the most equitable division of the products of industry that can ultimately be devised.

For recognition of the Golden Rule and the Mind of Christ as the supreme law of society and the sure remedy for all social ills.

The memorial states that the organization of labor is not only the right of the laborers and conducive to their welfare, but is incidentally of great benefit to society at large in the securing of better conditions of work and life in its educational influence upon the great multitudes concerned, and particularly in the Americanization of our immigrant population.

While we cordially appreciate the social service rendered the community by captains of industry in maintaining large businesses, affording employment to hundreds, and by their products serving the needs of their fellow men, yet our primary interest in the industrial problem is with that great number who, by their conditions of toil, cannot share adequately in the highest benefits of our civilization. Their efforts to improve conditions should receive our heartiest co-operation, as must all similar effort on the part of employers or disinterested organizations.

We are gratified by the growth of the spirit of conciliation and the practice of conference and arbitration in adjusting trade disputes, and we trust that these methods may increasingly supplant those of strikes and lock-outs, with attendant boycotts and blacklistings.

The committee evidently intends to make its memorial something more than a statement of opinions. A list of questions intended to stir up more interest in social work in the church was adopted and members of the conference are asked to bring their solutions to the 1912 conference. The questions follow:

What principles and measures of social reform are so evidently righteous and Christian as to demand the specific approval and support of the church?

How can the agencies of the Methodist Episcopal church be wisely used or altered with a view to promoting the principles and measures thus approved?

How may we best co-operate in this behalf with other Christian denominations?

How can our courses of ministerial study in seminaries and conferences be modified with a view to the better preparation of our preachers for efficiency in social reform?

A special committee on the state of the church was organized as follows:

Rev. George P. Eckman, of New York.

Rev. Dr. Levi Gilbert, editor of the *Western Christian Advocate*.

Rev. Dr. William M. Balch, of Lincoln, Ill.

President Crawford, of Allegheny College.
 Rev. Dr. John Handley, of New Jersey.
 Rev. Dr. J. I. Bartholomee, of Massachusetts.

REGULATION OF BOVINE TUBERCULOSIS

When it is stated that sixty-eight per cent of the cattle investigated by Dr. Veranus A. Moore of the New York State Veterinary College, were found to be infected with bovine tuberculosis, the importance of adopting measures to regulate this disease is apparent enough. About a year ago a joint committee made up of representatives from the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the New York Charity Organization Society and the Milk Committee of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor organized to study the question and propose legislation. Dr. Moore was appointed to make a report on the extent of bovine tuberculosis in the state, the economic and sanitary problems connected with it, the attitude of the farmers, the laws in New York state and in other states and the methods employed in Europe, Canada and various portions of the United States, to regulate this subject. Dr. Moore's report comprising some ninety printed pages, was published in the early part of the year and widely distributed.

During the past year the joint committee has been at work formulating legislation seeking regulation and control, basing its recommendations upon provisions of laws that have been in force and effect in Massachusetts, Wisconsin and Pennsylvania.

A carefully drawn bill was prepared amending generally the agricultural law with regard to the diseases of domestic animals and providing for a special board or bureau in the Department of Agriculture to be charged with this sole responsibility. The bill also provided for the office of state veterinarian, who was to be a trained expert and to be head of the bureau in question and for a more adequate compensation to farmers for cattle destroyed by the state and for a more efficient system of inspection. It further made possible the carry-

ing out of the so-called "Bang method," which has been used so advantageously in Denmark, Sweden, Norway and other European countries—a method by which the farmer is permitted to quarantine a diseased cow and use her for breeding purposes under proper safeguards instead of having the cow slaughtered. The measure also very carefully distinguished between generalized and localized tuberculosis and in many other ways marked a distinct advance over the existing law.

Recognizing at an early date the importance of this whole subject to the farming interests of the state, the joint committee determined before causing any measure to be introduced in the Legislature to confer with the various interests affected and to seek to reach an agreement so far as might be possible, upon some scheme of legislation that would be fair to all and would at the same time carry out the objects that the committee had in view. A conference was held early in the year with Governor Hughes, Speaker Wadsworth, Assemblyman Merritt (the leader of the majority), Senator Armstrong, Commissioner of Agriculture Wieting, Deputy Commissioner of Agriculture Flanders and other legislative leaders. The committee's purposes and plans were fully explained to them and a conference of all parties in interest was called by Speaker Wadsworth on February 13, 1908. This conference was largely attended by representatives of the Grange, the dairymen, the breeders, the commission merchants dealing in cattle, the Department of Agriculture, the joint committee, Cornell University, leading agricultural papers and others. While it developed at the conference that there was considerable diversity of view with regard to the value of the tuberculin test and the best methods of dealing with this subject, it was apparent that there were many points on which all of the conferrees were agreed, especially upon the need of adequately dealing with this serious problem which is rapidly becoming a menace to the farming interests of the state, as well as a danger to

the community through an infected milk supply.

As an outcome of the campaign carried on by the joint committee and by others interested, a bill was finally prepared by the committee on agriculture of the Assembly intended to represent a codification of the main ideas embodied in the recommendations of the various organizations and embodying to a certain extent the chief features of the various bills that had been introduced by different members of the Assembly, all seeking to deal with this subject.

This bill was introduced on April 3, but was speedily passed and is now in the hands of Governor Hughes awaiting his approval. It amends the existing agricultural law with reference to the diseases of domestic animals in the following main particulars: The application of the tuberculin test is made in the discretion of the commissioner of agriculture instead of being required as a matter of mandatory statute; the Bang method of quarantining an infected or diseased animal is provided for and such animal may be used for breeding purposes and its milk after pasteurization may be sold; a certificate that a herd is free from tuberculosis may be issued by the commissioner of agriculture, if after examination and test it is found to be in such condition; a special bureau in the Department of Agriculture for the regulation of diseases of domestic animals is created in charge of a superintendent who shall be an experienced veterinarian appointed by the commissioner of agriculture, and who shall receive an annual salary of \$3,000; provision is made for the carrying on by this bureau of an extensive educational campaign with reference to the nature of tuberculosis, the best methods of treating diseased animals, the proper care and sanitation of stables, the methods of feeding, the methods of improving the breed or milking qualities of cattle, the application of the tuberculin test and all other similar questions. In addition to the above the maximum amount of award for a diseased cow is raised from \$40 to \$75 and the distinction between thoroughbred and grade cattle is abol-

ished. Where a cow is slaughtered and has localized tuberculosis, eighty per cent of the appraised value is to be paid instead of sixty per cent as at present; and in the case of generalized tuberculosis fifty per cent of the appraised value is to be paid instead of forty per cent as at present. The bill contains other minor changes in the statute.

While this legislation does not contain everything that the members of the joint committee desire, it is believed that it marks a very important forward step in the regulation of the disease of bovine tuberculosis. One other important act during the year has been the appointment by Governor Hughes of Professor R. A. Pearson of the Agricultural College at Cornell to the position of commissioner of agriculture to fill the vacancy caused by the expiration of the term of office of former Commissioner Wieting. Those interested in this subject are looking to Commissioner Pearson to bring about important changes in the administration of the department.

The members of the joint committee follow: Representing the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis, Dr. A. Jacobi, chairman; Dr. E. G. Janeway, Dr. John W. Brannan, Dr. Alexander Lambert, Lawrence Veiller, Edgar J. Levy, Frank H. Mann:

Representing the Milk Committee: Stephen G. Williams, Dr. Haven Emerson, Dr. Rowland G. Freeman, Dr. L. Emmett Holt, Charles T. Root, A. J. Milbank, Robert W. Bruere and Wilbur C. Phillips:

Representing the Tuberculosis Committee of the State Charities Aid Association: George F. Canfield, Dr. Livingston Farrand, Homer Folks, Dr. Charles Hitchcock, John A. McKim and Mrs. William B. Rice.

TO REORGANIZE CHILDREN'S THEATER

Beginning July 1 the Educational Theater for children will leave the entertainment department of the Educational Alliance, New York, and be separately incorporated under a board of directors now in process of formation in the hands of Samuel L. Clemens, Robert J. Col-

lier, G. Stanley Hall, Rev. Percy Stickney Grant and Otto H. Kahn. During the summer the classes of the theater will meet at 20 Gramercy park, Mr. Collier's former home, while it is working toward the home which it hopes for in a building with an auditorium to seat 1,000, classrooms and rooms for social gatherings and orchestral rehearsals. For the season of 1908-09 the Educational Theater will provide entertainment for the Educational Alliance as hitherto and for other educational centers.

The movement for wholesome and interesting entertainment for children and young people, started by the Educational Alliance, in a short time attracted widespread interest. An article in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS in 1907, the first published account of its work, attracted much attention and it was reprinted in *The Review of Reviews*, *The Theatre Magazine* and a number of educational publications, and led to correspondence with many parts of the country which sought a similar outlet for expression on the part of young people living in a restricted environment. The director, Miss Alice Minnie Herts, believes strongly that in performing this service it not only provides an outlet for youthful fervor, but often saves that fervor from drawing young men and women into the hands of elocutionists and later to a cheap stage where they become fixtures. More than that, by its representation of wholesome plays and folklore, it presents dramatically to the neighborhood stories of old-time interest which have more than succeeded in competing with the cheap theaters and the moving picture shows. To its young actors it has also taught promptness and devoted attention to an assumed duty. The curtain has never yet been rung up late. There has been great interest among the fathers and mothers of the East Side and the training in English, in carriage and in co-operative effort has been notable.

Statistics of the productions given have recently been compiled. During five years there have been 165 matinees and seventy-four evening performances with an average attendance at the for-

mer of 800 and the latter of 532. The total attendance has been 171,060. The total disbursements have been \$28,033.63 and the total receipts \$6,958.18 leaving a net expenditure from sources other than box office receipts of \$21,065.45. The average cost for each performance has been \$87.72 and the average cost per person attending has been twelve and one-half cents. This does not include the maintenance of the building. In five years 520 boys and girls have been in the classes.

During the past year the Sunday theater closing law has greatly restricted the number of performances which an East Side theater might give, and Miss Herts reports that the new directors will work for special legislation to permit Sunday performances on the ground that Sunday closing "has turned loose into the streets or into the moving picture shows, the nickelodeons and the cheap Bowery theaters, many of those who frequented the alliance performances and were thus brought under the influence of its ideals." Miss Herts says of the theater:

The desire to enact characters is so frequently mistaken by young people for dramatic talent, that unless an outlet for this desire is provided they are apt to leave their daily vocations and seek stage positions at just the character-forming period of adolescence. Such young people are either laughed at by parents and friends as being stage struck, or are encouraged by so-called teachers of elocution, who pretend to prepare them for stage careers, or they have the misfortune to get on the stage. During the adolescent period when dramatic impulse is urgent, the Educational Theater provides young people with an opportunity of exercising this impulse without pledging them to the stage as a profession, but putting to service the impulse in developing them to greater usefulness in their varied walks in life. Of further service to the individual has been the actual experience of playing according to professional regulations. No other agency could have been so sure and so absolute in its disillusionizing effect as the experience of earnest study, of preparation, the necessity for long hours of careful rehearsal, and the laborious attention to detail necessary to the suitable production of a play. All this has been done without disassociating the people from their regular vocations by which they earn their livelihood. It has merely served to strengthen them for these vocations.

Rural Development¹

Francis H. McLean

It has been truly said that the urban problem will never be settled until the rural problem has been settled. That means, to begin with, that the attitude which advanced social thinkers now have taken towards country life, is an attitude which must be democratized. It is striking indeed to see how closely, even in this age of steam manufactured values, our economists are thinking in terms of that French school which saw no other creator of values than Providence and the farmer. Some day perhaps a gifted psychologist will show us by what methods in a country, great primarily because of its agricultural resources, all the cheap wit of the stage and the penny dreadfuls lampooned the followers of our basic industry. Occasionally the city man gets the worst of it, as the villain in some bucolic pastoral, but the "hayseed" is the omnipresent butt of our shoddy humor in most of our "simple" comedies.

This is but a mere superficial evidence of that trend of thought which has all been cityward, never countryward, so far. The man of note in the rural community has been generally the man who went to the city, hewed his way, and then returned to bask in rays of admiration.

Fortunately changing is the spirit. To hear the superintendent of public education in Virginia state that the leading educator of that state is not found in an academic gown, but is a simple, energetic farmer, who has learned intensive farming and is teaching it to other farmers, is but one revelation of the things which are to come.

Indeed, that statement indicates not only the changing spirit but also illustrates the only method by which effective rural development may come. That is by finding the leaders in the country itself. As Professor L. H. Bailey of Cornell, has well said, the revivification of moribund rural institutions can

never be through superimposed activities, through any transplanting of the settlement idea; but through the farming communities themselves. True it is that the search for the natural leaders and the process of inspiring them to take up the leadership which belongs to them, may be undertaken by others but that will be the extent of their really fruitful activities. In one other direction Professor Bailey has well said that the people who cannot make good in the city cannot make good in the country and any transplanting of the weaker of the city folk is a mistake.

In Professor Bailey's eyes the lack of enterprise and gumption in rural districts is due to arrested development and individualism and therefore the country is the less in need of technical education than the broader application of education. What is required is not only better farming but better business and better living. The first step must be to develop the local fact, this by means of agricultural surveys which shall be intensive studies of individual farms, covering the pedigree of the stock, analysis of the soil, water supply, relative productivity, etc., and by the expert advice regarding intensive cultivation based on these facts, fastening the farmer to his particular piece of land with increased virility and enthusiasm. Hand in hand with this there must of course go the development of local institutions. What Professor Bailey has to say in this connection regarding the reorganization of the fundamental basis,—land,—is most interesting. There is no such thing as an abandoned farm. What is true is that with agriculture in a state of flux there must be a reorganization of the traditional units, the fenced in farms, which is made more difficult because the institutions of the open country have been sterilized. The fences marking the individual farms have not yet changed as they must.

Then, too, the gospel of co-operation must be preached. This has already begun in connection with economic associations such as associations of creameries, associations made necessary because of greater specialization of the

¹A summary of the meeting on rural development held in connection with the committee on needy families at the National Conference in Richmond.

day. Next the church, which is in a state of arrested development and bears as little relation to the real live problems of the community as the public school. For what does the country school teach regarding even agriculture, pure and simple. Following closely after these is the development of fraternal societies, Christian associations, associations necessary to revive the play spirit, local political organizations. It goes without saying that in the open country questions of public health must also command a large share of attention.

To revert to a former statement, the growth must come primarily through the development of leaders, of men and women in the country, fitted to take up special kinds of community problems. Of course the possibilities for the right kind of country teacher and the right kind of country minister are almost unbounded. But these two traditional leaders, with leadership regained, by no means exhaust the list of possible leaderships; there must be also the men and women organizing other institutions, developing social spirit as well as prosperity.

Dr. Frissell of Hampton, discussing some of Professor Bailey's statements has drawn attention to the consolidated school, far away children being transported by carriage, as opening up possibilities for a better and more vital educational and community growth than is practicable with the small district school, hampered as it is by its comparative expensiveness. Superintendent Eggleston of the Virginia State Board of Educa-

tion gives it as his opinion that under the old system fifty per cent of the money used in the ordinary rural schools is wasted. What he has to say about the close relating of the near consolidated schools to the life about them is a revelation as to the efficiency between the two systems. The actual practical teaching of agriculture, on the ground, has been undertaken. Most interesting is his statement that playgrounds are as essential in the country as in the city school. Taking up another phase of the school question, Virginia has witnessed the development of the school leagues to a point reached by few other states. These leagues promise to "holler" for the things which they cannot obtain by "stretching" or "retching over," to use a mangled summary of Mrs. Mumford's apt illustration before the Richmond conference.

Bleecker Van Wagenen has suggested that in connection with the rural movement we should have something resembling the student volunteer movement in connection with foreign missions. Why should not the men and women who go into the higher schools and the colleges from the country organize themselves into a movement for the development of those sections from which they come. The scientific farmer is going back to the land. But should he not go back not only as a farmer but as a social organizer.

This somewhat disjointed article is but a preliminary one to a more complete presentation of the problem, in this paper, by those who have thought and done most in connection with it.



"A STREAM OF WORK AND DUTY DIVERSIFIED BY ISLANDS OF REPOSE."



DAY OFF, said my Uncle Peter, is a day that a man takes to himself. Not a day of luxurious solitude, a stolen sweet of time, for nine times out of ten a man will find that he cannot get a really good day to himself unless he shares it with someone else. Every man owes it to himself to have some days in his life when he escapes from bondage, gets away from routine and does something which seems to have no purpose in the world just because he wants to do it. Playtime is a part of school time, not a break in it. The right kind of a school will be a miniature of what life is for all of us,—a place where law reigns and independence is rewarded,—a stream of work and duty diversified by islands of freedom and repose,—a pilgrimage in which it is permitted to follow a sidepath, a mountain trail, a footway through the meadow, provided the end of the journey is not forgotten and the day's march brings one a little nearer to that end. If the end of the journey is something entirely outside of yourself, a certain stint of work which you were created to perform ; or if it is something altogether beyond yourself, a certain place or office at which you are aiming to arrive ; then, of course, you must stick to the highway and hurry along. But suppose that the real end of your journey is something of which you yourself are a part. Suppose it is not merely to get to a certain place, but to get there in a certain condition, with the light of a sane joy in your eyes and the peace of a grateful content in your heart. Suppose it is not merely to do a certain piece of work, but to do it in a certain spirit, cheerfully and bravely and modestly, without overrating its importance or overlooking its necessity. Then, I fancy, you may find that the winding footpaths among the hills often help you on your way as much as the highroad, the day off among the islands of repose gives you a steadier hand and a braver heart to make your voyage along the stream of duty. The peculiar happiness of a day off is the sense of relief that a man experiences when he unbuckles his knapsack, when he lays it down under a tree and says : " You stay there until I come back for you ! I am going to rest myself by climbing this hill just because it is not on the road map, and because there is nothing at the top of it except the view."—From *Days Off and Other Digressions*, by Henry Van Dyke, copyright 1907 by Charles Scribner's Sons.



"WINDING FOOTPATHS AMONG THE HILLS"

The Necessity of Leisure¹

Percy M. Dawson

Baltimore

When I was a little boy, I read or had read to me a good many fairy stories. Among those which made the deepest impression was one, which began somewhat as follows:

Picture to yourselves a mining gulch in gnome land. Hour after hour we see the little brown men with their leathern bags pass and repass. In every bag of gravel a few grains of gold. Hour after hour in this somber valley, bowed with toil but contented, with a subconscious sense of duty done and destiny accomplished! There is here no grand though wicked plan such as made Alberic foreswear love that he might possess the Reingold, for these dwarfs are good simple folk. Prompted by the rudiments of an æsthetic sense and humming softly a little chant about the beauty of gold, they increase their hoard as a child might gather wild flowers.

But now a stranger stands among them. For a time he watches the busy throng but soon he is looking across the valley to the hill beyond, and there he sees—oh, glorious in the sunlight—a colossal mass of masonry, with moat and walls and flanking towers, with battlements, bastions and barbican. You who have seen *Schloss Heidelberg* or the gray walls of *Rothenburg ob Tauber* can realize as no one else but children the feelings of the enraptured stranger.

"Whose is that castle?" asks the stranger of one of the dwarfs. The dwarf slowly puts on a pair of spectacles made of some opaque mineral instead of glass, he looks in the direction pointed. Then he shakes his head and answers, "I see nothing." In vain the stranger seeks for information. No one can even see the castle through the opaque eye-glasses.

It is just this scene from the beginning of the fairy story that I remember so vividly.

And now I shall tell you another story:

There was once upon a time a cobbler, and he lived on a desert island where his only companion was a carpenter. The cobbler made shoes "because," said he, "I need shoes and so does the carpenter. Therefore I shall make shoes—for the benefit of the human race." But the carpenter said "Pooh! Pooh! Shoes, shoes! Who ever heard of shoes? Don't bother me about such nonsense." And then becoming more serious he went on im-

pressively: "I am, you see, making chairs, most useful articles, for the benefit of the human race. Why don't you turn your attention to chairs, Mr. Cobbler?" "Who ever heard of chairs?" cried the cobbler in disgust, as he went on with his hammering.

Many years rolled by and at last the following conversation might have been heard. Carpenter: "Yes, very true, shoes are a great invention. Still, you cannot expect me to take much interest in such things. My time is occupied with making chairs—for the benefit of mankind." Cobbler: "Quite right. I fully appreciate your noble calling, Mr. Carpenter, but I, for my part, cannot approve of those who do not stick to their last or to their bench as the case may be."

More years roll by until the reign of a new *Zeitgeist* begins. Carpenter: "My life work is for the benefit of mankind,—and that is your motive, too, is it not? Wherein can I be of service to you?" Cobbler: "By merely wearing shoes." "Then you must show me the advantages of shoes." "Have I not sung the advantages of shoes for years!" "True, but I did not hear you. I was too much interested in chairs and in trying to make you interested in them." Cobbler: "I, too, have become interested in chairs and would like to know of what use they are." "Then," said the carpenter, "we must both desert our work that each may explain to the other his point of view."

Now you will at once agree that the relation existing in the final stage of the evolution of these tradesmen was preferable to that depicted in the first stage and why? Because while the cobbler was spending all his time in making shoes and the carpenter was spending all his time in making chairs, there were, to be sure, many chairs and shoes but few people to use either.

Now we can never say that we have got all that we can out of a story until we analyze it and apply it to ourselves. The dwarfs are those good people who labor according to their lights but whose lights are dimmed by a wilful ignorance, a "genteel ignorance" as Hammerton would say. The tradesmen were at first no better than the dwarfs but while we were observing them they passed through several stages of development: militant or blind bigotry, polite

¹The notes to which the figures in this article refer are found in the conclusion.

tolerance and sympathetic co-operation.

In which of these three stages do we find ourselves? We shall soon see. I am the cobbler and you the carpenter and I cry: "Look at my shoes! They are models of comfort, and of art. The general use of such shoes as these would prevent endless suffering and the deformities which we see in almost every foot. The orthopedic surgeon is constantly called upon to correct troubles due to improper shoes. Everywhere we see flat-footed nurses, floor-walkers, shop girls, waitresses and so forth. Nay, even the artist and the sculptor must correct in his work the shoe-made deformities of his human model. Shoes!" I cry, "Shoes." But are any of you willing to go into the shoe question and satisfy yourselves that what I say is true and then adopt measures to obtain proper foot-gear, wear it and introduce it among your friends?

But suppose I am the carpenter and you the cobbler. Suppose I cry "C. G. S. system, centimeter, gram, second system, French decimal system of weights and measures! Time saving, mistake preventing, logical. As great an improvement on our present weights and measures as our decimal currency over pounds, shillings and pence!" But will any of you hang up centigrade thermometers in your houses or weigh yourselves and children in kilograms?

Not a bit. Believe me we are at best tolerant only. We live and let live and what is the result? Speaking broadly the result is this that all individual effort is hampered if not entirely nullified by the apathy and inertia of every other individual, and every effort on the part of a society or organization is hampered if not entirely nullified by the apathy and inertia of every other society or organization.

Let me, however, be definite and specific. Settlementers for example are always hard up. They are always in want of hands, brains and money. But can anyone ever get aid from them? Are they not often too busy to talk intelligently about their own affairs, much less to understand and counsel me in regard to mine?

Are you settlementers helping to mould public opinion with regard to the value of pure science, the necessity of vivisection, the advisability of reform in college athletics? Are you battling with Christian Science or trying to mitigate the antagonism between priest and prophet? These things are of enormous importance in my life. Or have you any light to shed upon science, art, or metaphysics, in which I am so deeply interested?

I doubt it very much. And this condition of things will continue until we do what the cobbler and the carpenter did. "Then," said the carpenter, "we must both stop work that each may explain to the other his point of view."

This brings me to the fundamental note of what I have to say: That note is leisure, leisure for the cultivation of that intelligent sympathy which is needed for co-operation.

One of the most important objects of the settlement is the breaking down of class barriers and the preventing of segregation. By segregation I mean the flocking together of birds of a feather, a tendency which seems to me to be fraught with very great dangers, namely those of ignorance and prejudice which are hostile to co-operation.

It is of advantage to the neighbors to have the residents with their new ideas and methods come among them. But how long will those ideas and methods remain new? How long is it before the settler becomes absorbed by the neighborhood? As she performs her routine tasks she comes more and more to think and to live as the people within the narrow circle to which her work, I do not say duty, confines her. She ceases to cultivate friendships elsewhere, she ceases to be a channel of communication between classes and the means of combating the evils of segregation. Given a sufficient amount of leisure and a mind capable of utilizing it, the settler can penetrate into other communities. She is musical, perhaps, and if so she can frequent the company of musicians. She may capture choristers for the musicians or she may capture musicians for the settlement. But in any

case she can spread the gospel of settlement work, that is of social obligation and interdependence while at the same time absorbing the inspiration and experiencing the refining influences of art.

It is not that settlementers see too much of one another but that they see too little of anyone else. It is not that their thoughts and reading run too much on settlement subjects but that they run to the exclusion of much that is needed to give breadth of view and philosophical poise.

Not only does segregation lead to narrowness of outlook but it leads to class prejudices. There is a common fallacy which is the basis of much class prejudice and which is due merely to the ignorance caused by segregation. For example the physician compares his class with that of the merchant to the great disadvantage of the latter and why? Because he compares the average merchant with the best physicians of his acquaintance. He does not intend to be unfair but he unconsciously passes over all his weaker brethren as unworthy representatives of his profession, while he views the merchant class as a whole because it is only as a whole that he knows it. Had he included among his more intimate acquaintances a few merchants and had he been enabled thereby to grasp the point of view of the best of their class, this fallacy would not have crept into his reasoning. Is it less a necessity that the settler associate with the man of science, the theologian and the poet? And is it possible to do so unless we cherish as one of our dearest possessions a certain amount of leisure?

CULTURE

I cannot lay claim to any divine revelation. I cannot state with assurance just what the goal of human existence is, but I am content for the present, at least, with the biological view, namely, that life is an end in itself. Now the essential peculiarity of life is consciousness and this consciousness of ours has two principal aspects: in the first place there is knowledge and in the second place there is feeling. The power to observe,

to understand the relations of things and of men and to reason about them is quite distinct from the faculty of appreciating pleasure and pain. We know and we feel; this is consciousness, this is life. But note that at the touch of religion, feeling experiences an enormous impetus in its development. That great teacher, who has given us the gospel of love has declared "I came that they might have life and have it more abundantly,"³ that is, if I mistake not His meaning, that feeling is now expanded into sympathy, a sympathy which deepens and widens our emotional experience just as the acquisition of knowledge increases our intellectual life.

Life is knowledge and sympathy and he who attains these in greatest measure is the superman,⁴ the symmetrical man,⁵ as Phillips Brooks would say, the man of perfect physique, perfect mentality, perfect morality. Let me describe him as portrayed by others and first the physical superman or rather superwoman.

They are tanned in the face by shining
suns and blowing winds,

Their flesh has the old divine suppleness
and strength,

They know how to swim, row, ride, wrestle,
shoot, run, strike, retreat, advance, resist
and defend themselves,

They are ultimate in their own right—
they are calm, clear, well possess'd of themselves.⁶

And next the intellectual superman, him
whose mind is

as a Mirror or Glass, capable of the Image
of the universal world, and as joyful to receive
the Impressions thereof, as the Eye
joyeth to receive Light; and not only delighted
in the beholding the variety of things,
and the vicissitudes of times, but raised also
to find out and discern the inviolable
Laws and infallible Decrees of Nature.⁷

And lastly the moral superman,

Behold, my servant, whom I uphold;
My chosen in whom my soul delights;
I have put my spirit upon him,
He will set forth the law to the nations. . . .
A cracked reed he will not break,
And a dimly burning wick he will not quench.
Faithfully he will set forth the law;
He will not burn dimly nor be crushed in
spirit,
Till he have set the law in the earth,

And for his instruction the far countries wait.

This then is the ideal man, the embodiment of all that is splendid in Greek art, of all that is profound in modern learning and of all that is sublime in Hebrew ethics. This is the superman.

It is needless to say that we all desire, whether consciously or unconsciously to be supermen and I should add, to help others to become supermen. We are striving for the symmetrical development of ourselves and of one another, but for this end our daily work does not suffice. Our work develops us along certain lines only and we must change from one side of the galley to the other as Ben Hur did, if we are to avoid deformity. The scholar is not a superman if he is not also an athlete and a philanthropist; and the modern Hercules who has neglected the affairs of the mind and of the heart, has made but little progress on the road to perfection. How striking as a recognition of this principle of human symmetry are the scholarships founded by Cecil Rhodes. But such symmetry does not come of itself, it demands culture and culture implies a certain, perhaps considerable, amount of leisure.

One of the principal functions of the settlement is that of education. The object of education is the production of supermen. But it is only through the efforts of the superman that supermen can be produced. Of course didactic instruction is of great importance but the most important moulder of human thought and action is unconscious imitation. For the action of this force, however, there must be someone who can be imitated. If we would be the spiritual parents of the superman we must be supermen ourselves but this we cannot be without the continual self-education which requires leisure.

No man can become a superman unless he is given some leisure in which to develop himself symmetrically and consequently the settlementer strives to obtain leisure for others. Factory hours are shortened, child labor is prevented and so forth. Thus the people acquire leisure but do they know what to do with it? All this is trite. We all know perfectly that

the shortening of working hours should be accompanied by corresponding educational reforms. We deplore the fact that these two processes do not keep pace and we think that we are doing all that we can to remedy the defect, but listen to this, listen to the words of a settlementer who declared in my horrified ear that if her work lasted only eight hours she would not know what to do with the rest of her time. Again the opaque spectacles thought I.

Our schools are trying to teach us how to work but we need also to be taught how to spend our leisure time. We need to develop a whole new system of education along entirely new lines so that it may be ready for the time when the eight hours are reduced to six, may be ready for the time when education, industry, art, ethics and everything else are in the hands of the average man. We must teach that average man to occupy his leisure with pursuits that will develop the superman, the man with whose aid Jones would constitute a state⁹ the man in whom the elements are so mixed "that Nature might stand up and say to all the world 'This was a man'."¹⁰

To teach mankind how to become real or supermen, this is the work of the settlements; but it is work for which the settlement is incompetent unless its inmates know exactly what leisure means and how to use it.

SUGGESTIONS

If it is granted that leisure is needed for culture and for intelligent co-operation and if it is possible, as of course it is, to secure this much needed leisure, then the next problem which confronts us is that of deciding how we can best spend that leisure. I do not propose to discuss this question in detail or even to cover the field in a superficial manner. I shall merely present two more thoughts which are germane to this subject before bringing my paper to a close.

The first thought has reference to co-operation. With regard to co-operation I have already given my views in the story of the cobbler and carpenter. "wherein can I be of service to you?" "By merely wearing shoes." We are

surrounded by a crowd of people each with a different war-cry; shoes, weights and measures, pure food, dress reform, street car ventilation, physical culture, vegetarianism, open-air sleeping, esperanto, vivisection, manual training, forestry, and so forth and so forth. If we ask any of these people to tell us the least possible that we can do for them, they will tell us and it will usually be about as small a matter as washing in the Jordan. As a rule we are not annoyed as Naaman¹¹ was at the trivial nature of the act required, but we are worse than he in that we pass it over as unworthy of our attention. But here again I shall make myself more definite by giving a few concrete examples.

Suppose it be granted that most of our bodily ailments and many of our mental aberrations are to be attributed to a lack of proper physical development and care. The result of such conviction, and conviction will come to anyone who thinks about it, will be that we shall begin to take regular exercise, perhaps only for a few minutes a day; we shall begin to reflect upon the diets of oarsmen and mountaineers and to put into practice the rules of the gridiron and the track, and soon we shall become worthy to hold a chauffeur's license for the running of the human machine which we have been so carelessly bumping into the laws of nature all our lives or, to change the figure, we shall begin to feel that old divine suppleness and strength and to realize that we are on the high road to physical supermanhood.

Or, again suppose we find ourselves face to face with a real live esperantist, and suppose we are won over to his point of view, as we probably would be if we took the trouble to listen to him. Then the result of this conviction will be an effort on our part to help on the movement merely by trying to shake the self-confidence of those unfavorably prejudiced persons whom we may happen to run across.

Or, lastly, suppose we have an acquaintance who has given up his life to the study of Greek and Roman vases. We do not ask the rhetorical question, "What's the use of broken crockery?"

but we ask the question of the humble-minded inquirer, "What is the advantage to the human race of work in this narrow field?" If we receive a satisfactory answer, as we shall if we wait for it, we shall come to realize that archeology is one of several very important chapters in human history, we shall be in a position to appreciate the value of similar so-called "pure" sciences and we shall always be ready to impress this value upon those who, through ignorance, belittle the study of old leaky pitchers and verdigrised hair pins.

All this may not seem like co-operation but it is. It is the recognition of the value of shoes and chairs and the proper employment of both. It is setting an example to which the cobbler and the carpenter will point with satisfaction and pride and it will unite us with the cobbler and the carpenter by a bond of sympathy. Believe me the parable of the widow's mite applies to acts as well as to subscriptions.

To summarize this first thought then, one might say that in co-operation every little counts, a thought which though not new, might as well be for all the use we make of it, and so it has not been inappropriate to mention it here.

The second thought has to do with culture; it concerns a method, one of the many, for cultivating oneself. I choose to speak of this method not because it is new but because although it is a very important one it has been almost completely forgotten. I refer to correspondence. The days of careful letter writing are over but I feel sure that they will return again when the cultural value of this practice has become recognized and when we have come to realize that as Schopenhauer truly says "to do nothing but read is even more paralyzing to the mind than constant manual labor." At present much of the material which should be used for the making of good letters is used in the making of bad books and few of those persons who have enough self-restraint and consideration for mankind to refrain from publishing ever write anything at all.

But let me describe this method of self-

culture with more definiteness. First choose an intelligent and sympathetic friend. Then write slowly and thoughtfully a series of letters to that friend. The composition should be one's best, it should express one's profoundest thoughts, and most subtle analyses. The letters should cover all possible subjects, should contain essays, witicisms, stories, poems, criticisms of people, books and ideas. One should take a long time in composing such letters, consulting reference books whenever necessary. Copies should be kept and filed for reference and in the course of a few years no one will be able to broach a topic which we will not have thought over carefully and written up to the best of our knowledge and ability. All this requires leisure but the cultural value of leisure so spent must surely be very great.

In conclusion let me summarize briefly. In the first part of this paper I spoke of co-operation. We found that social beings may be considered to pass through three stages of development: militant or blind bigotry, polite toleration, sympathetic co-operation. The dwarfs never passed beyond the first stage but the tradesmen had already reached the third before we dismissed them from our consideration. I then gave some evidence that we ourselves had reached only the second stage and stated also that the third stage could be reached only by following the example of the cobbler and the carpenter and permitting ourselves a certain amount of leisure. Then looking at the subject a little more from the settlementer's point of view, we saw that segregation was one of the greatest obstacles to co-operation and we saw that segregation could be combated only by those who possessed a certain amount of leisure.

In the second part of the paper we considered the goal of life and the nature of the superman and we found that only through careful culture could we hope to realize that ideal. We found that as an educational institution the first duty of the settlement was to develop the superman, a task which could be accomplished only by supermen, that is, only by

the persons who possess a culture which implies leisure. We saw that one of the fundamental movements of society to-day is towards a decrease in the working hours and we saw that it was the duty of the settlements to teach the proper use of the time left unoccupied and we were led to ask ourselves, Is the settlementer competent to give reliable instruction in this matter?

In the third part of the paper we noted that a discussion of the means of obtaining co-operation and of acquiring culture would carry us too far afield and so I had to be content with presenting two thoughts of practical value to those who are disposed to view them in that light. The first was the application of the parable of the widow's mite to the practice of co-operation and the second was a reference to the cultural possibilities of letter-writing.

In conclusion then we find that the keynote of the whole situation is leisure, leisure for the cultivation of a broader sympathy and co-operation among the workers in all fields, and leisure for the cultivation of the superman from whom only we can expect a really intelligent and philosophical treatment of the problems of life including those of settlement work.

CONCLUSION

In scientific writings in spite of their literary short-comings quotations are seldom made unless accompanied with an exact reference to their original source; would it not be advantageous if this practice were more general in compositions which are, or are intended to be, literary in character? Simply to use quotation marks, *i. e.*, to label a passage "not mine" is to leave the reader quite in the dark as to the real author of an expression and with no possibility of finding out in what connection and with what meaning it was first used. When education was limited to classical and religious studies it was not too much to expect that a quotation from these sources would be recognized by an educated reader, but to-day the case is different. In the first place democracy now demands

that we try to include among our readers many who are in no sense educated. Secondly education has now become so much broader than it was that we are often and with good reason unfamiliar with what our fathers knew by heart. A man may never have heard of Polynices and his sister, may be uncertain whether or not Gehazi is an old or new testament character or may make a bold guess that Galio was a contemporary of Maimonides or Montezuma and yet be a comparatively learned man. Indeed he may in turn quote from the Dabistan or the Eddas, from the Egebi tablets or the Biological Series of Columbia University with a facility which calls forth the admiration while adding to the bemuddlement of his readers. In brief what I desire is to express the opinion that it is absurd to expect that a given reader shall know anything about a given quotation and that the greatest good to the greatest num-

ber is furthered by a careful labeling of all quotations and allusions in some such way as the following:

1. Address delivered November, 1907, to a company of social workers at Lawrence House (social settlement) Baltimore, Md.
2. F. G. Hamerton, *Human Intercourse*.
3. Gospel according to John, x: 10, revised version.
4. I have to thank G. Bernard Shaw (*Man and Superman*) for this happy term.
5. Phrase suggested by an excellent sermon, the *Symmetry of Life*, by Phillips Brooks, second series of sermons.
6. Walt Whitman, poem entitled *A Woman Waits For Me*, one of the *Children of Adam* collection, in the volume entitled *Leaves of Grass*.
7. Francis Bacon, *Of the Advancement and Proficiency of Learning*, book I, chap. I, p. 4. 1674. Translated by Gilbert Wats.
8. Isaiah, xlii: 1-4, polychrome edition.
9. Sir William Jones's poem entitled *What Constitutes a State?*
10. Shakespeare, *Julius Caesar*, act v, scene v; Antonius speaks thus of Brutus.
11. Kings, v:11-12.

How to Avoid the Breathless Habit

Richard C. Cabot, M. D.

Boston

By "breathless" I mean overwhelmed by rush of cases, choked with details, unable to 'see the wood for the trees.'

The immediate, pressing needs of emergency cases keep social workers at full stretch, at full speed, so that they have no time to catch their breath, literally no time for inspiration. The breathless runner at the end of his race can scarcely see or hear, far less think. So for the breathless social worker, sight is dim and short; for him long views, deep study and that slow maturing of thought, whence comes originality, are scarcely possible. The recording of cases in a form satisfactory for subsequent study and generalization is as rare as the opportunity for time and thought wherewith to produce any generalization of importance. Attention is snatched from one case to the next; the spoken and still more the written word comes to acquire the mechanical, clicking quality of the typewriter. Since there is no time to take

breath, since no inspiration is possible, the soul of the worker grows dulled; his first hope and ambition, his natural originality and cogency of statement are lost.

I do not mean to imply that these conditions exist only in social work. I am very familiar with them in the field of medical work, and I have no doubt that they exist to a considerable degree in any work that is growing,—any work in which the number of daily items is increasing more rapidly than the number of workers. But because the social worker stands at the center and focus of human interests, and requires perhaps more than any other person in the community to keep his senses and his imagination keen for all that is in the foreground and the background of his work, I want to press upon the attention of social workers certain methods by which, it seems to me, the evils which I have just described may be minimized. Those methods are:

1. The limitation of intake in accordance with the strength of each worker and the nature of his problem.

2. Provision for a sinking fund (of time) for the wiping out of old debts (unfinished case work).

3. Provision of funds (of time) for research; that is, for reading, writing and report.

4. Proper advertising.

5. Proper recreation.

Many organizations are prevented from instituting a proper limitation of intake by the fact that they suppose that they have already imposed such a limitation. Most charitable organizations limit the number of hours in each worker's day (or attempt to) and limit vaguely the number as well as the kind of cases to be received. If double the number of cases should suddenly apply to any organization, a re-organization would be necessary; and that this is so proves that we have already in mind, though rather vaguely, a principle for the limitation of intake. I want that principle made clearer, both in social work and in some other professions.

It has been most lucidly shown by Dr. Goldwater¹ of Mt. Sinai Hospital in New York that while the admissions to hospital wards are rigidly limited by the number of beds in the hospital, admissions to the hospital dispensary are unlimited, with the result that out-patient work is usually slovenly, exhausting and unsatisfactory. We may make a similar comparison between the definite limitation of intake necessitated by the number of rooms or beds in a prison, a reformatory institution, or an orphan asylum, and the very vague limitations placed upon probation work for the inmates of these institutions after their discharge. Public attention has recently become focussed upon this problem in other fields. We are beginning to see that the number of pupils per teacher in the public schools cannot be indefinitely increased without wiping out the benefits of education; and we are beginning to move, though rather slowly, towards a limitation of the intake per room and per teacher.

I think, however, that social workers

should take the lead in this matter, standing as they must for proper conditions of work and proper treatment of employes, as well as for the attainment and maintenance of those higher points of view,—research, prevention, public education—which ought to spring out of daily case work.

The incubus of back work, unfinished cases over which we first worry or despair, then more or less placidly put by, prevents an adequate concentration on new problems and tends to harden our consciences to tolerate slovenly work in the present. "Since so much is impossible," we say, "why try so hard over the ultimate bearings of these cases as they come?" With such a press of cases we cannot expect to accomplish more than the most immediate relief of the most pressing needs. We are conscious of running into debt, debt which at first we think we can surely pay off. What are the end results of our cases and whether we have done what is really effective, are questions which we would like to answer, but which we are forced to abandon as practically unanswerable, in view of the more immediate needs of new cases. Gradually we grow callous to the prickings of our working conscience, which tells us that we should pay off these debts.

Yet I think that the harm done in this way is still surprisingly small, because of the fine moral fibre of the social workers. As a matter of fact, the failure to pay off old debts, to finish up cases and draw the proper inferences from them has surprisingly little effect upon the conscientiousness and thoroughness of daily case work. Much more important, in my opinion, is the harm to the total efficiency of the work. Efficiency retrenchments, efficiency extensions of the work, the re-shaping of our efforts to meet changes in the need to which they correspond,—all these fundamental modifications of policy which make the difference between a progressive and intelligent piece of work and one which is hardening into routine, are impossible if we are badly in debt. It is partly because of the weight of these debts that what I should call the inner life of social

¹American Journal of Medical Science. September, 1907.

work is slower in development than it should be. This "inner life" means:

(a) The science of social work, which so far has been meager and slow in growth.

(b) The beauty or inspiration of social work, which is not seen as it might be because we have not time to notice it as it flashes up or flashes by.

(c) The higher education of the workers in neighboring professions such as medicine, teaching and the ministry.

(d) The better organization of social work through the use of labor-saving devices. Our methods are getting worn out, our machinery has depreciated, much of it should go to the scrap heap.

He finds most, both in quality and quantity, who looks for most, who has what someone has called "the prehensile eye," whose mind is charged with ideas and questions needing verification. But this fruitful state of mind does not come of itself, nor as a result of continuous work, however faithful, on cases. It comes, so experience shows, to most of us only as a result of reading, writing and research. All large manufacturing establishments now maintain a laboratory and one or more research workers. They also encourage their employees, by prizes or otherwise, to suggest improvements, labor-saving devices and the like. I want to see such research provided for definitely in the day or week of each social worker.

We do not want to see in social work that divorce of pure and applied science, that divorce of thought from practice, which has played so much havoc in the other sciences. It is all wrong that the best things about social work should be written by anyone except the man who is doing that work. The professor of sociology may easily become as isolated from life as the laboratory expert.

All this is admitted by most social workers. "Some time" they think, they must get around to reading and perhaps to writing; but here as in other fields "sometime" is no time. A definite hour on a definite day must be set aside, and each worker must be held responsible for reporting in such form as shall show not only a capability to absorb what others think, but a capability to think for himself. It is only in this way that we have any hope of abolishing ourselves and our profession, thus fulfilling the ambition which ought to be cherished by all.

Proper advertising means proper cooperation, and is therefore a duty for all. It means: First, "Here is some power to spare; take it." Second, "Here am I in need of a power which you have: give it." But in its special relation to my present theme advertising is important as an effective source of comfort,—the mental comfort needed by all who have to limit their intake in plain sight of a piteous and indefinitely great need. Publicity is not only a most effective remedy and a powerful educational force; it is also the correlative and justification of a limited intake.

Of proper recreation as a duty for social workers I have only a word to say. As a medical man I have had forced upon my notice the fact that social workers often break down, and that their collapse is apt to occur because only one side of a rich nature has been at work. Very few social workers have so arranged their lives that they must absolutely forget social work for a part of each day; but such forgetfulness is as necessary as sleep or food. The best oarsman rests between each stroke. The most efficient social worker will have a vacation each day.



THE ROYAL PALACE AT CASERTA.

The Effect of Emigration Upon Italy¹

A Social and Industrial Revolution Necessary

Antonio Mangano

FINAL ARTICLE

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We have already indicated that the problem arising from emigration, so far as Italy is concerned is limited to the southern and some of the central provinces. Anyone who runs through the various departments of Italy may read why the Basilicata, Campania, Calabria and Sicily are diminishing in population, and why the Veneto, Piedmont, Lombardy and Tuscany are rapidly increasing. The causes are not of recent date, but reach back through centuries. The first mentioned group of provinces was admitted to the great Italian family in 1860, as a disorganized mass and acknowledgedly inferior to the northern provinces.

The two Sicilies and the Kingdom of Naples had been for centuries the prey

and looting ground for almost all the European nations. Numerous wars impoverished the country. The weak fled to the strong for protection, and as feudalism developed, there arose the theory so rooted in Italian life to-day, that the poor exist only to support the wealthy and privileged, to cultivate their fields, build their palaces, and virtually be their slaves. There are hundreds of beautiful villas and palaces whose architecture, gardens and art treasures are the admiration and envy of the world, and yet their foundations were laid in social injustice. The magnificent Royal Palace at Caserta, for example, which is a veritable storehouse of marbles and precious stones from all quarters of the world, its gardens, fine driveways, lawns, lagoons, and waterfalls extending over one and one-half miles, the water being brought

¹ The five issues containing Mr. Mangano's articles will be sent postpaid on receipt of \$1. Single copies of any issue, 25 cents.



PALM SUNDAY.

The boy, the dilapidated stone houses and the crumbling stone street are characteristics of practically all Italian villages.

75 kilometers over mountains and valleys,—all were constructed at a vast expenditure of time and labor for the Spanish King, Charles III. The Royal Palaces of Naples and Capodimonte, enormous structures and very costly, were built for French and Spanish Bourbons—leeches upon Italian life in their day.

The ordinary traveler, who chances upon these exquisite retreats of luxury and pleasure is filled with admiration and considers their builders patrons of art and lovers of beauty. But he fails to see that all was the fruit of oppression. The toilers received next to nothing for their labor, and for centuries have been compelled to live in the meanest huts, some of them unfit even for animals, in order that the prince or bishop might surround himself with luxury. Both church and state went on the principle that ignorance was the best soil in which their selfish and false practices could be carried on. Prior to 1870 fully 90 per cent of the population of the Kingdom of Naples and the two Sicilies could neither read

nor write. With ignorance comes servitude, consequently that section of Italy which was once the center of the highest and best Grecian culture, is now lying in intellectual darkness and moral and material ignorance. Prof. Josa, in charge of one of the *Cattedra Ambulante d'Agricoltura* in the Molise, pointing to the beginning of the emigration movement in that province says: "After twenty years of united life everything was still in a stationary condition. The only thing that had grown was the population. The land which had nothing to export began to export her sons. The people who could not find in their native land the means of elevation sought it across the ocean in contact with other peoples."

The final union of all the Italian provinces, which took place in 1870 when Papal temporal rule was abolished once for all, was merely a mechanical one. Though nearly 40 years have passed there is no real unity as yet in Italy. What was true in the days of Mazzini is true still. After the Italian constitution had been adopted, binding all the provinces into one mass, the great patriot and lover of freedom said: "We have made Italy, we must now make the Italians." There is not yet a solidarity of national feeling. The North Italian is proud of his nationality, but it is hard for him to recognize the Calabrian, the Sicilian and the Neapolitan as Italians. Among our Italian immigrants men are not designated as Italians but rather as Toscani, Piemontese, Romani, Napolitani. Centuries of struggle between town and town, province and province, have developed a kind of local and provincial bias. This is the reason why the southerners do not expect much help from their northern compatriots in the solution of their problem.

It is interesting to read the literature bearing upon *Il Problema Meridionale*, "The Problem of the South." Many of the solutions offered are vague, others fantastic while still others are serious and sensible. The most valuable suggestions come from such men as Prof. Pasquale Villari, Mr. Nitti and some of the larger men in connection with the *Cattedre Ambulanti d'Agricoltura*. These men have looked at the situation from

the point of view of the people of the south. It is their judgment that the problem is not at bottom so much a material one, as a moral, intellectual and social one. If the south could only be led and directed by wise and honest men, the material situation would be bettered in a single decade.

The insistence of the landlords that something be done, the pitiful and abject condition of the people, seen by prime ministers and deputies themselves, and finally such sense of national pride as does exist, having been offended by the opinions expressed by other nations regarding the conditions of Italian workmen, have all served as stimuli to

who live in crowded provinces and prohibiting emigration to those who live in the more abandoned sections. But such legislation is impossible. Laws affecting the entire country could be passed, but no laws for special sections would be acceptable. It will easily be seen that the Italian government must keep the emigration door open, thus enabling its subjects to earn their livelihood elsewhere if they cannot secure it in their native land, but so to regulate that emigration that the results of the toil of the emigrants shall not be lost to the mother country. To obtain this end, some bond of union must be maintained between the mother country and her emigrant son in order



A CHARACTERISTIC TOWN OF THE BASILICATA.

make the national government give some attention to the problem.

But here it should be noted that the government itself has been faring remarkably well since emigration has been increasing. The national debt has been reduced. The currency of the country has been put upon a firm basis, its paper money being now on a par with its gold and silver; and millions of francs have been pouring into the country, which have been available for government loans. Therefore Parliament will be very slow to interfere seriously with a process which has been the source of so much material good to the country.

It has been suggested that laws be passed to affect certain localities only, thus giving freedom to emigrate to those

that the desire may be kept alive to return to Italy when he has made a goodly sum of money. The best way to do this is to follow up the emigrant wherever he goes and minister to him according to his various needs. With this aim before it, the government has contributed generously toward the maintenance of the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants; it has given a substantial sum of money to help in the carrying on of the Italian Home for Immigrants in New York; it has recently offered quite a large sum of money for the establishment of an Italian hospital, and within the last two years it has established in Manhattan an Italian information and labor bureau, manned and maintained by the Emigration Department of Italy. The various



THE BARBARINI PALACE, ROME.
Built of stones taken from the Coliseum.

Italian newspapers keep the Italians well informed regarding the happenings in Italy. The success with which these efforts are being attended may be seen in the numbers of young men who report annually to the Italian consul general in New York city, either for registration or for actual military service. I was told recently that New York furnishes as many recruits for the Italian army as the city of Naples.

In the *Nuova Antologia* for September, 1907, there is an article by Camello Ferua of Montevideo, entitled *Gli Italiani al Estero*, The Italians in Foreign Countries. The author believes that a closer bond of union should exist between the mother country and her exiled children and he pleads strongly for electing representatives from the colonies in foreign countries to the Parliament at Rome. Says the writer:

There exists in New York a labor bureau which works remarkably well, according to the report of the emigration service. Now

if the United States not only tolerates such an institution but assists it, I do not see why they should object if the Italians there in residence, at every new legislature, elect one of their own number to represent them at the Parliament at Rome in order to co-ordinate and to render more intimate their relations with the mother country in the interest of both countries.

Such relations as the writer suggests would make invalid the oath which every Italian subject takes on becoming an American citizen. The author is apparently unaware that every Italian who desires to secure naturalization papers which entitle him to the rights and privileges of American citizenship, must renounce allegiance to every European potentate and especially to the King of Italy. This solemn statement is not taken seriously by many, and surely it is not in the least regarded by the Italian government. This I discovered when on my first visit to Italy after an absence of 25 years, furnished though I was with a passport from Washington, with the



A PEASANT HUT AT AVELLINO.

great red seal of state, and with my naturalization papers. I was amazed when I was arrested and put in a den of a prison reeking with filth and vermin because I had paid no attention to the Italian laws regarding the matter of military obligation. I was under the impression as I am sure many Americans are, that when once I had sworn off my allegiance to the King of Italy and had become an American citizen, I would be recognized as such, and not be required to fulfill the obligations of an Italian citizen.

The experience was not amusing, and yet as I look back upon it there was a ridiculous side to it. When with great dignity and pride I pulled from my pocket my passport, I expected to see the little Italian official gasp for breath and humbly beg my pardon. Imagine my feelings when glancing at the American eagle on my papers, and the signature of the secretary of state, I at the same time exclaiming, "*Sono Citadino Americano.*" "I am an American Citizen," he turned his back upon me and said most indifferently "*fa niente, fa niente.*" "That's nothing, that's nothing." I was led away by two *carabinieri* and turned into a large room where I found seven prisoners who

were to be my companions for that day and night. The next day I was taken before the prefect of the province, and then it was learned that I was not obliged to serve the regular three years in the Italian army, not because I was an American citizen—that was not recognized—but because I was the only male in my family. The Italian theory is "once an Italian, always an Italian." The government does not recognize the change of allegiance on the part of any of its subjects.

The Italian government has also been active in securing information concerning the various regions of the United States, so that it may warn its emigrants to avoid certain places, and to give them such information concerning healthfulness of climate, nature of work to be done and pay to be expected. Four years ago Cav. Adolfo Rossi was sent on a special mission by the Italian government to make a tour throughout the United States and Canada, and study labor conditions, the treatment of laborers, housing conditions, food, pay and social status. He made a full report of his findings to his government and that report was widely circulated. Last year the Italians in Louisiana sent a complaint to one of the

consuls in this country, regarding the bad treatment they were receiving at the hands of American employers, and as a result Luigi Villari, vice consul at Philadelphia, was sent on a tour through the southern states and his report was published by the Italian government. His special mission was to discover localities best adapted for Italian laborers and to protect and counsel such as are already there. He found numerous abuses practiced upon ignorant Italians by southern planters, such as compelling the laborer either by threat or by false promise to write to friends or relatives in Italy to come here. In other cases fictitious names were put on tickets and the emigrant was told to swear on landing that the name on the ticket was his, and that he was going direct to relatives. Still in other cases letters were written to prospective emigrants in the name of persons known to them and tickets were sent to them, these people naturally thinking that they were to be received by their acquaintances, but on reaching their destination they found themselves among strangers. He also found such abuses as the company store where the immigrant is charged double the value of the article and where if purchased before wages were due, eight per cent would be charged upon the debt incurred. In some plantations he found a virtual state of peonage where men are paid by tickets instead of money—cheated and deceived, they soon get in debt to the planter and thus are compelled to remain in his employ, or if they run away they are arrested on some pretext other than debt and brought back.

With such information as this scattered throughout Italy, it is very probable that emigration to the southern states will not very materially increase. If the southern planters desire Italian laborers, they must make up their minds to treat them justly and decently, and they must not expect to employ them on the same terms as their Negro laborers.

Certain localities from which large numbers of Italians are emigrating are also becoming interested in the welfare of the would-be emigrant. In Palermo an organization was formed two years

ago composed of leading citizens. This organization, with an office in the heart of the city, has a twofold object: first, to find employment for all those who would emigrate because of lack of work, at the same time endeavoring to induce some men to invest money in various enterprises and so use both capital and labor to the advantage of the home country; second, to direct and assist those who are determined to emigrate by keeping in touch with labor bureaus in foreign countries, and so secure information as to the places needing the kind of work which the emigrant can do "and where it is possible to secure a regular contract that will assure to the emigrant work and livelihood upon arrival."

The government has thus far only made a beginning towards improving conditions. It has in the first place recognized the necessity of better housing conditions and of bringing the *contadino* nearer his work. It has therefore in some parts of Calabria and the Basilicata constructed a few so-called *Casa Coloniche*—neat, sanitary houses in the midst of the fields where the peasant does his work. The benefit from this movement would be twofold,—it would prevent the enormous loss of time which is necessary when the toiler lives on the mountain top far from his work, and it would relieve the unhealthful congestion of the crowded mountain towns. But these houses have not been as popular as they should be, mainly for two reasons,—because the valley districts are infected with malaria and the people have always felt the necessity of living on high ground to escape it, and because of the social nature of the Italian.

To overcome the first obstacle the government is doing good work in planting eucalyptus trees, especially about the railway stations, to dry up the marshes which are breeding places for the poisonous mosquitoes, in fitting screens to the doors and windows of all buildings occupied by employes on the railroad, and in furnishing quinine at a very low price to those who are suffering from malaria, even offering it free of charge to the very poor.

The second obstacle is harder to deal



VILLA BORGHESI, ROME.

The museum and grounds are now open to the public under government management.

with, because the Italians are gregarious by instinct and have never been pioneers or colonizers of new regions. They love too much the community life and close contact with their fellows. They cannot bear to isolate themselves and live a lonely life. After the hard day's work is done, the Italians are fond of gathering in the public square to smoke and talk and listen to music. The women take great delight in going in groups to the public fountain, or gossiping from the doorstep with their neighbors. Their social nature explains why it is impossible to prevent them from herding together in our large cities, and why it is so much more difficult to persuade them to settle in the country than our German, Scandinavian and Polish immigrants who are accustomed to real country life.

In 1886 another beneficent movement was started in the northern part of Italy by the agricultural department, known as the *Cattedra Ambulante d'Agricoltura*, Walking or Itinerant College of Agriculture. The first one to be established was in Rovigo of the Veneto. These schools are very similar to our government experiment stations carried on by our agricultural department. The agricultural status of the northern provinces has been actually transformed through the practical information circulated among the rural population by means of these institutions. Especially is this true of the Veneto. There are now about 140 of these schools, but they are mainly located in the northern provinces and only a few have been established in the south.

The man in charge of a *cattedra* locates in some central town and studies with his associates the region round about him. When by experiment and observation he has discovered what crops are best adapted to that particular soil, and what treatment the land needs to give the largest returns, he makes a tour of the towns, gathering the people in the public square on Sundays, and tells them in simple language the results of his study. Great progress has been made where the people have followed the advice of these men. Often, however, the southern peasant is unable to profit

by this instruction because he has no money with which to buy fertilizers or proper tools. The work of the school is therefore not complete until the government assists the *contadino* in securing money to enable him to carry out the lessons he has been taught. The few agrarian banks established and carried on by the government, where the peasants can secure small loans at a low rate of interest, have met a great need and have proved very successful. The funds of these banks have been far too limited—in some cases not over 3,000 *lire* was at the disposal of those who would borrow.

The efforts thus far put forth by the Italian government are good so far as they go, but more radical measures are necessary if permanent relief is to be realized. There was a time when Germany and Ireland were sending thousands of emigrants to this country. Germany saw the point and sought to develop her industrial resources, and having done so her emigration problem was solved. Ireland had lost half of her population. The poor Irish peasants, under the thumb of the land barons, ignorant of modern methods of agriculture and helpless to secure a favorable market for their produce, emigrated by the hundreds of thousands. Then the English government advanced £20,000,000, bought up the great estates and so liberated the poor tillers of the soil, renting the land to them on very moderate terms. When this had been done, Sir Horace Plunkett, in conjunction with some other altruistic gentlemen, established great co-operative organizations among the farmers. Later came the farmers' stores where the producers sold their goods directly to the consumers without passing through the hands of the middleman. This meant larger returns to the farmer without raising the price to the consumer. That great benefit has come to Ireland as a result of these changes may be seen from the fact that emigration has virtually ceased.

The land working class of Italy should be freed from the grasping avarice of the large landholder; they should receive sufficient education to enable them to read and write and then more should be



THE DORIA PAMPHILI PALACE AND GARDENS IN ROME.

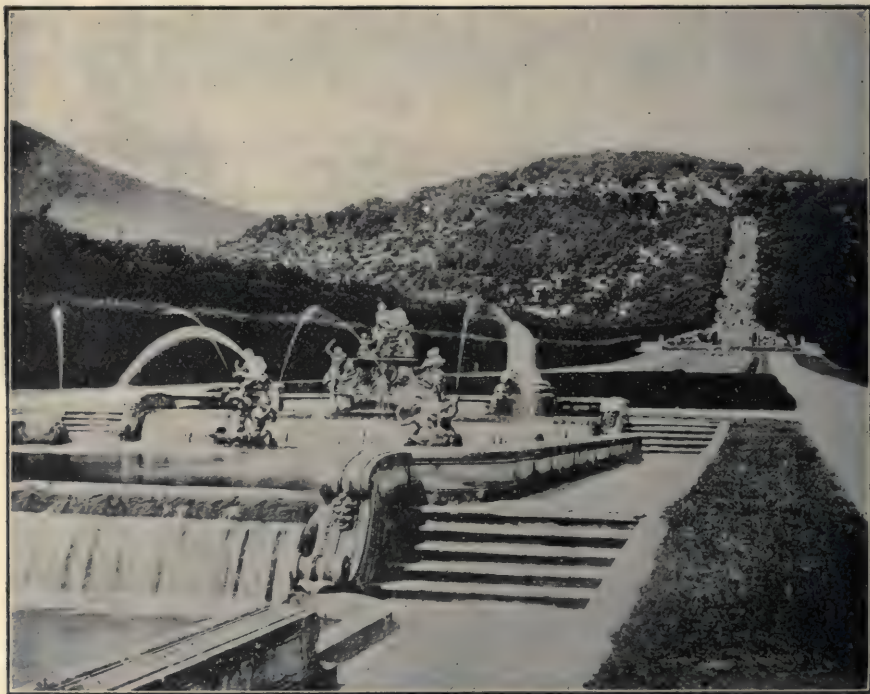
done to give them adequate technical instruction along the lines of modern methods of agriculture.

One of the most urgent needs of the south is better means of communication and transportation so that the *contadino* can get his crops to market on wagons instead of on the back of a donkey. Then if the government would abolish taxation upon domestic animals and lessen it on other possessions of the *contadino* for a time at least, he would have a chance to get ahead somewhat. While standing one day in a post office of the Basilicata a man rushed in to deposit a hundred lire, and most abruptly announced that he was going to America. Without waiting for anyone to speak he continued: "Here I am just getting on my feet and saving something from my earnings by keeping late and early at my work and now the government sends me a bill of forty lire on my *Ricchezza Mobile* or personal property. I am going to America

where a man is not hounded by the tax officials."

Whatever the government does in behalf of the agricultural classes cannot fail to react favorably upon the entire nation. Even if the government were to spend several millions of *lire* along the lines indicated with no immediate returns, it would in the long run be making a profitable investment.

The work of Luigi Lo Porfido, a returned emigrant to Matera in the Basilicata, is an evidence of what can be done through wise co-operation. Mr. Lo Porfido, an artist, lived in New York for ten years. Then he returned to his own town, and moved by a real socialistic spirit, formed a co-operative organization with which three years ago several hundred of the *contadini* were associated. He is at the present time pastor of the flourishing Baptist church in Matera. This earnest apostle of Christian helpfulness taught the people to help one an-



A VIEW FROM THE REAR OF THE CASERTA PALACE.

More than a mile of garden and waterfalls, fountains and lagoons running up the mountain side.



CHARACTERISTIC DOORYARD OF A PEASANT'S STONE HUT.

other. They work together in sowing and reaping time, the numerous little flocks are pastured together, while Mr. Lo Porfido sees to the selling of the flocks and grain to the best advantage of the producers. Their largest profits have come from raising goats. One year they received as high as 75 per cent on their investment. These organizations should everywhere be multiplied, and every favor should be shown to those who see no other way out of their misery than to emigrate.

Prof. Villari affirms that there are two problems which Italian emigration to America presents to the Italian people.

First, what will become of those provinces, especially in the south, from which the agricultural population is departing *en masse* with the intention of not returning to its native land?

Second, what can be done on the other hand in the provinces from which those who leave go with the intention of returning, after they have accumulated a fairly good sum of money on which to live in Italy under better conditions?

He gives no attention to the first problem, but emphasizes the necessity of finding a solution to the second. Those who are determined to live abroad permanently are lost to the country, but those who are disposed to return providing they can live decently in their own country, — these should be shielded and encouraged in every way. They need especially to be protected against the large landholders who willingly sell them land and anxiously wait for their failure so that they may buy it back again at a much smaller price.

Many are urging legislation in the solution



LUIGI LO PORFIDO.
Ex-American immigrant who started
a very successful co-operative
movement in Italy.

of the problem. Doubtless something can be done by law, but law has no power to change the hearts of men. Says Prof. Josa in his report on the Molise: "We may strive through special laws, which as soon as made show themselves to be useless; we may spend our time in discussing our evils but around us through the work of emigration is going on a tremendous revolution, a revolution in property, in men, and in customs, which no legislative wisdom could ever have brought about."

There is necessary a change in the attitude of the so-called upper classes toward the tillers of the soil. The history of Italy is the history of the urban population. The people of the field have never had any part in the life of the Italian states save in furnishing food for the cities. Rome was the Roman Empire until the coveted Roman citizenship was conferred upon other cities, but Rome never recognized the workers of the ground,—they were slaves. The only use Rome had for Sicily and Sicilians was that they might furnish a sufficient supply of grain for the pauperized Romans. Later when the empire was no more, the work of the fields was done by barbarians. So all through the centuries the food producers, the backbone of any nation, have always been held in contempt, and now the land-owning class who are complaining bitterly to the government are only reaping the fruit of their selfish and unjust course. Even now they are unwilling to do that for the poor *contadino* which would make him satisfied, and enable him and his family to live, and would bind him to his native soil. If each landowner would be a personal friend to his tenants, furnishing them with modern tools and teaching them the use of fertilizers and how to rotate their crops and take a lively interest in their home life and families, both owner and tenant would reap larger returns. The landlord can also do a beneficent work in providing for his tenants better houses and in taking the lead in improving sanitary conditions.

Speaking of what Italians should do to assist in the solution of their present problem, Prof. Villari, who seems

to be the most far-seeing man in Italy to-day, well says:

It means that we must reorganize and fuse together the various parts which organically form the body of the nation,—we must reconstruct the ideal unity of the Italian spirit. Private initiative must energetically co-operate with government and public administration. It is an enterprise which if it succeeds, can surpass all the glories of our past history. A new horizon is opening up before our young men in social science, in politics and in the literature of our country. We must cause all to understand that he who with spade in hand and with the sweat of his brow, causes the soil to bring forth is a citizen, none the less useful, none the less necessary, and none the less noble than he who with pen in hand writes a sonnet or prepares an address. It is necessary that the heart and spirit of the nation be lifted up to such a height that it may feel and understand that only in the intrinsic ideal unity of all the citizens can the nation be really strong, prosperous and happy.

A few words now regarding phases of emigration that affect us. A practice which may and often does result in evil is the ease with which passports are granted to prospective Italian emigrants. Any man may present himself to the mayor of his commune, ask for and secure a passport. They are free of charge, and good for three years. Many men who have no intention of leaving the country, secure one because of the lavish way in which passports are granted. The mayors of nearly all the towns that I visited showed me packs of passports ready for the applicants to come and get them. I was told that this makes it possible for men to commit crimes and then cross the ocean without the least hindrance. The Italian government is now considering the advisability of granting passports only to those who intend to emigrate with certainty and within a fixed period of time after receiving them.

It is unnecessary for me to say that the rank and file of the Italian emigrants who come to this country are worthy and industrious, but we are not blind to the fact that there is a criminal element among them. The myriads who are patiently doing their work and fulfilling their duties as citizens go by unnoticed, while the few who commit atrocious

crimes are described in big headlines in the daily press. Among the unthinking and uninformed there is an impression that all Italians are dangerous and that all carry stiletos and revolvers. On the contrary, the law-abiding thousands of that nationality are waiting anxiously to see our government take some decisive step to prevent the carrying of weapons. The Italian population all over the country would be filled with joy and thanksgiving if our government should succeed in driving out or breaking up the bands of Italian criminals that are here.

The respectable class of Italians in this country are agreed that our laws are not sufficiently severe in their application, especially to the Blackhand and other vicious criminals. Instead of sending a man to Sing Sing for a year or even five years, life sentence should be passed upon any who are convicted of attempting to take the life of a fellow man. In Italy the punishment is very severe for such crimes, and as a result they are comparatively few.

It is often asserted by ill-informed persons that Europe has opened her prison doors, and that she gladly allows her criminals to cross the ocean. The fact is that so far as Italy is concerned the government will not grant a passport to any man who has been punished for any offense he may have committed. Further, the Italian government in its code of instruction to emigrants specifically states that the American authorities require a document from the emi-

grant showing his freedom from crime, and the Italian government grants such a document to those who are entitled to it. But as a matter of fact, our government has never required such papers, which it really ought to demand from every Italian no matter from what part he may sail. This would doubtless shut out most of those who are troublesome here.

Then too our own government should be more careful in granting naturalization papers and passports. It is a fact that persons who would ordinarily be excluded from our shores, secure admission on passports and naturalization papers belonging to persons residing in this country. It is easy for any naturalized citizen to secure a passport. Such a citizen may have a relative in Italy whom he would like to have come to America. This man may be a criminal, he may be diseased, he may be wholly unfit to be admitted into our country. The naturalized citizen here can easily send him his passport or naturalization papers, and thus secure for him immediate entrance into our country. I know of one man who did that three years ago. It is risky to be sure, but they are willing to take the chance. Such practices could easily be restricted greatly, if not entirely avoided, by requiring each naturalized citizen to have his picture on papers and passports. Surely all such precautions could do no harm and might be productive of much good.



HILL TOWN NEAR ROME.

A railroad built through the region twenty-five years ago was stoutly opposed by the men as leaving the women open to Satanic invasion.

Back to Nature for the Indian

An Interview

Francis E. Leupp

Commissioner of Indian Affairs

Washington

Within the year CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS has published articles upon the effects of Occidental civilization in the Orient showing that with the great benefits which the West has conferred upon the East there have gone also some of the curses of civilization. The missionary and the trader have been followed not only by schools and prosperity, but by tuberculosis, drunkenness and child labor.

For generations the American Indian has had a similar experience at the hands of a new and aggressive civilization. Not only has he been subdued and pushed over to the far edges of his birthright, but civilization has been forced upon him in ways in which he could least accept it. His children have been educated, but by taking them from him to go to boarding school; farm land has been given him, but he has been forced to cultivate it with unaccustomed tools; clothes have been provided, but not of the kind he wore, nor of the kind his manner of living demanded; with the government rations an opportunity has been given him to advance, but an opportunity hampered by the most rigid official lines, of a kind suited to the disciplining of an army rather than to the uplifting of an undeveloped race. With the present administration of the Indian office this has been changed, and the Indian has been permitted to wear a blanket or store clothes as he saw fit; to have his children educated by preference at day schools as are the white man's; to live in a tepee or a house as he chose—in brief, to live his own life so far as he can with the stirring influence and competition of white settlers all about him. These paragraphs regarding the policy and administration of the Indian office were given in the nature of an informal interview of Commissioner Leupp with a member of the staff of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

The whole idea of open air schools for the Indian children grew out of my rather radical notion, entertained for many years and based on personal observation in the field, that the government started wrong in its effort to civilize and educate the Indians. No people who are worthy of such efforts would accept without an obstinate protest a complete reversal of every belief and custom and tradition they had inherited from their ancestors. The Indians, moreover, are especially a conservative race. What we sometimes call their stolidity is nothing more than a phenomenon indicative of the conservative temper of their minds. New things do not appeal to them as they do to our race, for example, because our race has for so many generations been brought up on the theory that all livelihood depends on competitive struggle, that we are reaching out after new things all the while in the hope of finding a safer or quicker way of accomplishing some of the progressive ends we are seeking. The Indian has no notion of competition. His life and his traditions are all communal. So at the basis of whatever novelty there may be in some of the plans I have projected, lies the notion of following the line of least resistance. If the Indian has been living in a certain way for untold centuries, I should not push him too rapidly into a new social order and a new method of doing things; I should prefer to let him grow into them of his own accord.

For one thing, the children of the Indians are little wild creatures, accustomed to life in the open air, familiar with the voices of nature rather than the voices of men, and I have felt that to imprison them in closed houses and compel them to do their school work in the ordinary routine way is a hardship which there is no need of enforcing arbitrarily. Of course, it is impracticable in some parts of the country to depart very far

from the common method of housing our schools; the climate would forbid it, for example, in places where the winters were very long and severe. But in a large part of the Southwest there has never seemed to me any good reason why children should be confined in a closed house during the season of fair weather, and I therefore hit upon the plan of having a few experimental houses built for our day schools, in which there will be the ordinary frame of studding and joists but the solid woodwork will come up only about as high as a wainscot or chair-rail in an ordinary living room. The siding above that will be made of wire screen, and the roof will have a somewhat wide overhang. The plan contemplates also flaps, presumptively of sail-cloth or tent-canvas, so arranged that when the weather is fair and only the ordinary breezes are blowing, these flaps can be raised and leave the screen the only barrier between the school room and the outside world. In the brief passages of inclement weather which come sometimes during the dry season in the Southwest, the flaps can be lowered as a protection against the sand-storm, or rain-dash, or whatever form the disturbance may take, on those sides from which it comes, leaving the other sides open to the air as before.

This plan is perfectly practicable, and will appeal to the mind of anyone familiar with the climate in parts of Arizona and New Mexico and substantially the whole of southern California. I cannot help thinking that the greater sense of freedom which the children will have in being thus simply corralled instead of imprisoned will have a good effect even in the matter of discipline. I dare say some teachers will object that the new style of school-room permits the children's minds to become distracted by the occurrence of things outside. As a matter of fact, there is very little occurring outside which would tend to distract their minds. They will hear a flutter among the aspens, if any are near at hand, and possibly an Indian may ride by now and then, but the schools are usually so isolated and the country is so sparsely supplied even with vegetation, to say noth-

ing of human beings, that the chances are very small of any distraction likely to absorb the attention of the pupils. Moreover, unless you absolutely shut and bar and curtain the windows of an ordinary schoolhouse, any incident outside catches the attention of the children, with consequences tantalizing rather than satisfying; whereas if the same children were kept in a mere open air enclosure, they would be likely to get used to the ordinary sights and sounds of their environment, and pay much less attention to them to the damage of their studies. At least, that is the way I look at it. If I am wrong, I am ready to be convinced and go back to the old practice.

But there is still another reason why I like the open air school schoolhouse better than the closed one. Our Indian children are particularly prone to pulmonary complaints. Ever since we have begun clothing the Indians and thereby making them physically more tender, the lungs have been their great seat of trouble: and when one child has begun to show pretty plainly symptoms of tuberculosis, it is not only cruelty to that child to shut it up where it shall breathe the enclosed atmosphere, but it is a menace to the other children with whom it is brought thus into close and unwholesome contact.

Under the present system, we have both day and boarding schools for the Indian children. But I am getting rid of the boarding schools as fast as practicable and substituting day schools for them. The Indian child who is carried away to a boarding school and after his course there returns to the camp or cabin of his parents, comes back a stranger and a hybrid—neither one thing nor the other. He has been divorced from the mode of life of his own people, yet the mode of life of the alien people among whom he has been educated has gained no lasting grip upon him. That is a very unhappy condition for any young person to be reared in. If the child after his schooling has no place to go to except his old home, he will almost necessarily slip back into the ways of his people, but with a worse result than we see in the case of a child who has never left his home. The latter grows up in

a natural atmosphere at any rate; but the former has been educated in an artificial atmosphere, and his rearing and his later surroundings will not mix any better than oil and water.

Now, if we take the same child and give him his little rudiments of learning in a day school, he goes and comes daily, and he bears home with him every night something of the atmosphere of the school. The parents, in my judgment, need the companionship of their children as much as the children that of their parents. I have lived in an Indian home in which the mother learned all she knew of housekeeping from her little girls, who had acquired the rudiments of home-making at the day school at the foot of their mesa. They trudged back and forth every day, and around the fire at night they would tell their parents what they had seen and heard, what the teacher said, and so on, so that the whole family got more or less of the benefit of the schooling of these little girls. Multiply this unit by an indefinite number and you can see how much broader and bigger the influence of the day schools must be upon the whole of the Indian race than the influence of the boarding schools could possibly be. The boarding schools train individuals, and when one of these children has stepped out with a diploma he fancies he has conquered the world. The day school gives the child—and through the child all who come into daily contact with him—something better than a diploma, although it may not carry him in mere book learning nearly so far.

It is one of the misfortunes of everything that one does for or through the government, that a general rule of uniformity seems necessary. As soon as one departs from this idea trouble is pretty apt to result. Suspicions are aroused in credulous quarters that there must be some special and interested motive for going off in one direction or another from the conventional lines. For that reason, a certain deference is shown to the immemorial practice of furnishing to the Indian only the unpicturesque but practical garments which we ourselves are accustomed to wear. We do not require that they shall be burdened with an undue

amount of clothing, however. My orders everywhere are to let the children run bare-footed as much as possible, and to give them as few garments as will answer their needs. It always seems to me a pathetic sight to see one of these little children called upon to throw off its moccasins and to put on the hard stubby shoes that the white child is brought up in. Indeed it never seems to me to promote particularly the civilization of the Indian at any stage of life to require him to change his footwear arbitrarily. It certainly does have the effect of misshaping what would otherwise develop into a foot of nature's own design. Wherever the point has come up, therefore, I have made the rule that little Indian children shall be allowed to wear moccasins if their mothers will take the trouble to make them. In purchasing clothing for the schools a couple of years ago I tried to get some of the shoe contractors to offer me an Indian moccasin or something corresponding to it in small sizes but could not get a single bid. I even instituted some inquiries to see whether the so-called "pack" shoes could not be furnished in children's sizes. These are shoes which are worn by some of the lumbermen in the northern forests and we used to buy a few for adults every year to be distributed in those places where we were still doling out gratuities to the Indians. But I could get no satisfaction with regard to little "packs" small enough for the younger pupils in our schools.

One point in which I was able to cut loose from the traditions of the Indian Office was in not requiring or even laying a tremendous stress of encouragement upon the wearing of so-called "citizen's dress." For the older Indians, I care nothing whether they wear buckskin and beads or homespun and print clothes. It is not the garment, it is the human being under the garment, that appeals to me. But when it comes to the children in the schools, we cannot do much less than supply them with simple little clothing in our own general style. Moreover, there is a certain value attaching to the training which the children get in wearing the common garb of civilized communities. What they lose in artistic

appearance they gain perhaps in that sort of conformity with the rest of the world which takes an interesting personality a step farther out of the category of curios. We are trying to train the young Indian so that he can take his place with the young people of other races in our common body of citizenship, and whatever tends to specialize or segregate him is to that extent a handicap upon his progress.

Instead of making a particular form of dress generally compulsory, or showing special favors to Indians who follow that style, my idea is to try to appeal to the reason of the individual Indian. He undoubtedly has a good ground for using his blanket as he does in a primitive state. When he is moving about all the time, exposing himself in the hunt or in war to storms which may overtake him in any place, his blanket is undoubtedly of value, and his migratory habits make it essential that he should carry his bed, as it were, on his back; but when he becomes a farmer, or a carpenter, or a blacksmith, the blanket gets into his way. I never compel him to take it off; I never even offer him seductive inducements to do so; but I aim to remind him of the difficulty he will have in doing his work with his blanket on, and then let his own mind work out the rest of the problem. By degrees he uses his blanket less and less, and finally settles down to the same general mode of dress that we have found most convenient in the same occupations. Once convinced by his own experience and by reasoning out the question for himself, he is convinced for good, and does not slip back or need reconvincing, as he does if his ideas are artificially prepared for him outside of himself and forced into him like a dose of medicine.

There used to be a rule against any use of an Indian tongue in a government school. That seemed to me not only cruel, but absurd. On the contrary, I go to the point of encouraging the children to bring their little nursery songs to school and sing them there in their own language. The pupils should be encouraged, by all the arts which will suggest themselves to the natural teacher, to cul-

tivate the English language. That is the language they will be obliged to use in their contact with the white communities which are growing up all around them, and, therefore, it has a practical value which appeals to the wiser and more level-headed elders of their race. But I never should think for a moment of punishing a child for using its own tongue while about the school. If a teacher cannot by his own personality win the affection of a child so that it will learn to speak his language for the sake of being able to talk with him, he has obviously missed his vocation. Certainly no amount of punishment, such as used to be inflicted for speaking in an Indian tongue at school, would ever have any effect upon a child with the normal amount of spirit, except to cultivate a disposition to secretiveness, or a desire to "get even" in some way for the injustice.

I go even further than I have already indicated, and am introducing into the schools a line of work for the conservation and development of the Indian art ideals. A good many of the children are very clever designers, following the traditional lines and colors used in the bead work or blankets, the baskets or pottery of their own tribe. Instead of giving these children our standards to conform to and our methods to follow, I am trying to draw out of them what is already in them, inherited with their blood. In the little papers and magazines published at some of the schools, also, I am trying to arouse among the children a love of printing the stories which their old people have told them—sometimes animal fables as good as those of Aesop or Uncle Remus; sometimes narratives of acts of prowess which would be used as epics if the Indians had any literature; sometimes simple descriptions of life at home, showing what the domestic and social customs are among the tribe to which the writer belongs. These little contributions are used as "compositions" in the classroom, and then the best of them, or those which are most characteristic, are printed in the school paper. To this source I am looking for the accumulation of a body of somewhat crude but nevertheless valuable material for the use of the ethnolo-

gist and the historian in handing down to our posterity a true conception of our North American aborigines. Every adult Indian who writes a book like Francis Le Flesche's *Middle Five*, or Dr. Eastman's story of his own boyhood, I consider deserving of all encouragement in authorship, because it is only through such personal revelations from within that we can ever reach the core of the Indian question.

On the other hand, I do not discourage or put impediments upon Indians who are trying to follow the white man's habits of living. But there are wise ways of encouraging this disposition and foolish ways. I have seen a time, for example, when, if an Indian was fit to be trusted with a position of some responsibility at an agency he was required to adopt in all respects the way of the white people. I have never made that a *sine qua non*. At one of our agencies in Arizona the superintendent won my unqualified approval for an act of his when he brought from the camps three Indians who had shown fitness to teach the more backward of their people certain elements of farming. He offered them appointments as assistant farmers on the government payroll. They objected at first to accepting such a position because they wanted to live with their families and their families were unwilling to adopt white ways of living. "Very well," said the superintendent, "then let them live in the Indian fashion; that is all right. I have three old adobe houses in fairly good repair which you can inhabit, so bring your families here and live in any way you choose."

Of course, he was long-headed enough to know exactly what would happen, and his prophetic insight has been borne out by later developments. The three families did move into the houses given them, and did live in Indian fashion in such matters as sleeping on the ground, taking their meals off the floor, and the like. But note what happened. Living among the white employes, though in their own way, it was not long before the head of

each household began to "take notice." First one little touch of Caucasian civilization would slip into the family life, then another. In aiming at improvement by contact, rather than improvement by theory, the superintendent was following a common law of nature, and to-day each one of those families is living in a very different style from what it did when it first came to the agency, although not one single arbitrary rule has been laid down for them. Whatever new practice any of those people are pursuing now, they are pursuing because they fell into it of their own accord; and every observer with a little judgment can see that such a change for the better is bound to be more lasting than one which is forced upon its object.

In brief, to go back to the statement with which I started out, the thing to be done with any of these primitive peoples is to follow the line of least resistance. A recent contributor to CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS who had made a study of Oriental people wrote a most interesting article which bears out the same ideas I have tried to set before you and which I am trying every day to impress upon my fellow workers in the Indian Service. "Take what you find already under your hand," I tell them—"the raw material, we may call it—and develop it. If you attempt to transform it, you will have your trouble for your pains. There is that which is inherent in the really forceful human being which protests against being made over, for all of us must realize that nature has started her job pretty well, and that we cannot successfully obstruct her course without having some strong reasons for doing so and some good common sense in our choice of methods. The man who should try to prevent the flow of the Niagara river by damming it at the falls, would not show the same practical wisdom as the man who takes advantage of the amount of water and its momentum by diverting a part of both into a channel where they will turn dynamos."

Is There Land for the Unemployed ?

W. B. Kellogg

Superior, Wis.

The question has been asked a good deal lately, why unemployed labor does not seek land or work on the farms. The chief reason is that men out of work seldom have money with which to seek employment at a distance or to buy land and establish themselves upon it. Then again, the demand for hired help on the farm is very irregular, and during all of the year, except a few weeks in harvest, it can usually be supplied locally. A man dependent upon wages must have regular employment, and he naturally seeks labor centers where there is a greater or less demand the year around. Unless he can see a definite job ahead of him, he will not be apt to forsake the known for the unknown. There seems to be little attempt on the part of the farmers to tell of their wants, and it is not to be expected that men in congested centers like Chicago will seek work in Iowa or North Dakota, several hundred miles distant, unless they are pretty certain that work is awaiting them when they get there. Considering the uncertainty and irregularity of employment, it is not surprising that laboring men do not seek the farms in large numbers for the sake of wages alone. Methods might be adopted for bringing the particular job to the attention of the man looking for work, but it is not clear how the employment of farm labor can be made more regular throughout the year.

There is, however, a vast amount of land in this country which would give opportunity for employment the year round to great numbers who are out of work, wandering aimlessly about the cities, providing that some method can be devised for giving persons without means, or with very small cash resources, a chance to make a start on their own account. Under the usual conditions of sale, land is out of the reach of those who need it most; for there must be a cash payment of some portion of the purchase price, the family must be moved, a house put up, necessary stock and tools bought,

and the settler must have some reserve to maintain himself until the first returns.

Perhaps the most favorable locality to be found anywhere, for the man of small means to gain a foothold, is the "cut-over" region of northern Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota. There he finds building material, fencing and fuel at hand for the taking, abundant natural pasture for his stock, nearby markets for all his produce, work in the woods for himself and team during the winter (when the prairie farmer is idle) and game, and wild fruits to add to the food-supply. But even under conditions such as these, it takes money to make a beginning, the amount depending on the terms of sale, the circumstances of the family, the location selected, and the amount of marketable timber on the land. Based on the experience of many, it may be said as a general proposition that a man of energy who has saved up three or four hundred dollars can, by careful management, move into the country and establish himself on this class of land. But the lack of this necessary cash capital is the barrier which keeps back very many who would gladly become independent of wages by getting next to the soil.

Living, as I do, in the Northwest, and seeing thousands of acres of fertile land lying out in the sun and rain waiting to produce abundant crops when labor shall be applied for clearing and cultivation, I cannot help thinking that some of this land ought to be used while it is cheap,—first to employ idle labor, and second to be sold in small tracts to those so employed who might desire land and a home of their own. Our remaining land-supply should not be wholly monopolized by "him that hath." The fellow who is down should be given a chance also.

Any successful attempt to bring land and labor together must have a business basis, whether it has a philanthropic motive back of it or not. That is, it would be vastly better for the beneficiaries of

such a movement to understand from the outset that they would not be treated as objects of charity, but strictly on business principles, except as they might be given an unusual opportunity to make a start. Self-help would have to be the keynote so far as the laborer is concerned, and a reasonable return for the investment would be necessary to give permanence to the undertaking.

Starting out with the complements, land and labor, and assuming that there is something in the idea that they should be brought together, can it be done actually and profitably under present conditions? The first essential is productive land, cheap in its unimproved condition and valuable after labor has been applied to it, such increase in value to exceed the cost of improvement. Doubtless there is land of this kind to be had in various parts of the country, but I shall confine myself to the situation with which I am familiar. At the present time, plenty of good land, well located as to railroads and markets, can be had in my own state, Wisconsin, at from \$10 to \$12.50 per acre. It is now covered with some living timber and with the stumps of a former forest. The expense of clearing varies from \$15 to \$30 an acre, depending on the character of the land and the methods employed. Because of the strong markets and the products that can be profitably raised, this land, when brought under cultivation, has been found to produce even higher net returns from a given acreage than land in the older settled parts of the country, where land is valued at \$125 to \$150 per acre. Even at half such valuation, there is a considerable margin for profit in the mere process of clearing. One instance may be given to illustrate this, as well as to show what may be done on a small acreage. A settler recently came from Iowa to Wisconsin and bought land twenty miles from Superior and Duluth at \$12.50 per acre. He cleared ten acres in time to put seven into potatoes the first season, and harvested a crop of fourteen hundred bushels which he sold at fifty cents a bushel. This quick return from a small acreage put him upon his feet and caused him to value his im-

proved land at \$75 per acre, although he says it cost him only \$27.50 an acre to buy and clear it.

If it can be successfully demonstrated that it is profitable to clear land of this character, it would seem to be feasible to help people over the "rub" of making a start by employing men to do clearing and then give them an opportunity to buy portions of the land on contract, at a price covering the original cost, the expense put upon it, and a reasonable profit to the investor. It would furnish work at the outset, which the man without means must have, and would bring him in close touch with the conditions of the country in which he intended to acquire a home. He would become familiar with the work required of a settler and could make a beginning on far less expenditure of money than if he moved into the country an entire stranger. He would also have an incentive to hard work and economy in keeping down the cost of improvements on land he expected to purchase. There is nothing like land-ownership to arouse latent ambition. The old fable of Antaeus, who was invincible when in contact with the Earth, his mother, but was easily strangled when lifted from her, has a fundamental truth in it. Many a man would have new life and hope put into him if he could see a little home ahead where he could be independent of chance wages.

Practically all improvement of land in the "cut-over" region has been done by comparatively poor men, because it took less money to make a start there than elsewhere, and what they lacked in cash capital could be made up in hard work, with something to do the year around. Hundreds of settlers, now in comfortable circumstances, made a beginning in this way. An instance in our own county may be cited as typical of the class. A colored man left the city a few years ago and settled upon a heavily-timbered "forty," fifteen miles from market. He had just enough money at the outset to make a payment on his land, put up a log house, and secure a team. He began his clearing at once and supported his family for a time on the proceeds of

cordwood hauled to the city. It was hard work, and he was handicapped by the long haul; but he kept at it, and by an intelligent use of his land he has become known as one of the most successful farmers of the county. Strawberry culture is one of his specialties, and a field of an acre and a quarter, all propagated from twelve plants originally given him, pays him annually something over \$600. This and other sources of income have enabled him to add forty acres more to his farm, and he is now independent.

If it is practicable at all to bring land

and labor together, it must be done essentially under these conditions,—cheap land, well located; considerable labor required to put it in condition for cultivation; increase in value by the improvement exceeding the cost; a good market for a variety of products; a class of products such that a small acreage will support a family. There is plenty of such land available. Ought it to be put within reach of some of those who cannot hope to obtain any of it under present conditions?

Poverty and Insurance for the Unemployed¹

Belle Lindner Israels

New York

Insurance for the unemployed is a comparatively new question. During the last decade it has attracted much attention in Germany and in nearly all of the more progressive countries it has received consideration.

Investigation of the question as it affects Germany was consequent upon a resolution passed in the *Reichstag* in January 31, 1902, by which the chancellor of the empire was requested to appoint a special commission to conduct a careful inquiry into the systems of insurance of this character in existence up to this time, and to formulate a plan for their efficient development. This resolution was finally referred to the Imperial Bureau of Statistics in November of the same year and, in complying with its provisions, the Department of Labor Statistics made an investigation of the systems in vogue in Germany and in foreign countries, with a thoroughness never attempted prior to that time.

The results of this investigation were published in three volumes in 1906 under the title: *The Present Arrangements for Insurance Against the Lack of Employment in Foreign Countries and in the German Empire*. Part I, *Insurance Against the Results of Lack of Employment*. Part II, *The Status of Co-opera-*

tive Employment Bureaus in the German Empire (Public and Private). Part III, *Appendix to Part I; Statistics, Laws, Ordinances and Statutes compiled by the Imperial Statistical Bureau, Department of Labor Statistics, Karl Heymans, Publisher, Berlin, 1906.*

Charitable relief is the oldest form of care of the unemployed. To a certain extent it was the mother of all care especially at a time when labor organizations were but little developed and not in a position to help their members over a season of idleness. Most laboring people are without appreciable means and dependent upon their work, and a considerable number are not in a position to save such amounts as will suffice to support a family for any length of time. Consequently the tendency of any long period of idleness is toward poverty; even though in actual practice the credit of the storekeeper, the consumer's society or the landlord enables many individuals to avoid this condition.

Poverty easily drags the poor man down, weakens him physically, diminishes his moral resistance, makes him less valuable as a working force, and frequently leads to lack of employment, as at every crisis or industrial depression the mediocre working men and women are the first to be dismissed. In individual cases it is often difficult to determine if pov-

¹ Extract from *Zeitschrift fuer das Armenwesen* of Berlin.

erty is the result of idleness, or idleness the result of poverty. In this connection the portion of the report of the commission of inquiry dealing with the condition of the unemployed in Basle is specially instructive. In the Canton of Basle the work for the amelioration of the condition of the unemployed assumed, to a large extent, the character of charitable relief, "as among those registered there were many cases in which it was difficult to determine if the straits in which the workers found themselves should be attributed to lack of employment or general poverty caused by a large number of children, intemperate habits, laziness or unfitness for work." This interdependence of lack of work and poverty is emphasized by the facts contained in the Basle report: "that among the unemployed there is a regular clientele without work a greater part of the time as well as a large number who, while receiving the help on account of such condition, are also the recipients of charitable relief through the ordinary channels."

Insurance for the unemployed is about fifteen years old. Up to that time the interdependence of poverty and lack of work was considered axiomatic as a condition which could not be avoided by any assistance towards self-help. Private charity supplemented public relief and where these ended the church and the province bore the burden, or various religious organizations created work for the unemployed during times of greatest depression. In a number of German states the acceptance of public relief made the situation even more oppressive as the forfeiture of certain political rights was one of the conditions imposed. Co-incident with the beginnings of the labor organizations about 1890, the views of the workingmen on these questions underwent a change. In the struggle for political rights they felt these conditions particularly oppressive, which caused them to lose part of such rights, if by reason of undeserved loss or lack of employment they became dependents on charity or if they were compelled to join the ranks of the poor for whose support the public made itself responsible. From the point of view of the workingmen, it

was the duty of the state to provide work in case of enforced lack of employment or to support the unemployed. In Switzerland they even made a formal but unsuccessful demand upon the government for the recognition of this principle.

The formation of a system for securing employment was, therefore, the first move of organizations beyond the mere giving of relief. During the past fifteen years Germany has witnessed a development in this direction which, though incomplete and insufficient still, goes much further than it was thought possible at the beginning of the movement; as on one side through the public agencies the conditions of enforced idleness are being met by organized systems of securing work, so on the other hand the system of self-help has been inaugurated by the labor organizations through which the workingmen support such of their own number as are unemployed. Although at its inception this work was started from a purely charitable point of view, it gradually became evident that the support of the men out of work not only helped the unemployed but also reacted to the advantage of others who had employment, as the unemployed men no longer underbid the actual workers in the labor market. It was also demonstrated that it was a valuable instrument in furthering the workingman's policy of maintaining the standard of living. This form of self-help owes its development during the last ten years to the recognition of its value as an economic factor, which is evidenced by the fact that in 1904 the English labor unions spent three and one-half million dollars and the German labor organizations about half a million dollars for the support of the unemployed.

The workingmen and the public agencies simultaneously attacked the problem of separation between help for the unemployed and the care of the poor. Assistance given as charity was refused by the workingmen in cases of enforced idleness, and a strict separation was demanded between assistance required by reason of lack of means and such support of the unemployed as would prevent poverty taking root. The giving of alms was rejected as a solution of the prob-

lem and, in consequence, ideas crystallized themselves in a demand for a system of public insurance for the unemployed which would, in conception and in fact, most strictly separate itself from the common forms of charitable relief.

In recognition of this fact all further development rejected any semblance of relief and to-day in practice the two divisions are very sharply differentiated. On the one side there are the unorganized workmen who possess neither the initiative nor the capability to subscribe to the treasuries for the unemployed, and who are therefore the first to become the victims of charity in case the effort to secure work for them, or to put them in the way of finding it proves unsuccessful. On the other side are the organized workmen who help themselves either through their unions or as subscribers to funds for the unemployed, and who strictly avoid communication with ordinary relief agencies.

Mixed forms of relief-giving as practiced by the Basle Commission for the Unemployed are regarded as an unfortunate solution of the difficulty even by those participating, and the report of this commission makes it plain that absolute separation is now demanded so that insurance for the unemployed and the giving of charity shall have no connecting link.

In contra-distinction to public relief-giving in Germany, we can cite but one positive factor giving the figures for the relief of the unemployed as distributed by the labor organizations which in 1904 disbursed about half a million dollars and during 1905 these figures, together with travelling expenses, reached \$750,000.00. It is true, however, that this comparison is not altogether reliable. The care of the poor and the expenditure required for the purpose necessarily deal largely with the solution of the problem which must remain within the province of relief-giving, even in the complete attainment of a satisfactory system of insurance for the unemployed. The sick poor, families of habitual drunkards or those with an unusually large number of children, homes left destitute by the death of the bread winner, the burial of the dead, and similar cases are all problems that go

much further than the confines of relief for the unemployed even when drawn as wide as possible. It is useful, however, to know how large a field must remain in any case for charity and poor-relief, so that the knowledge of these difficulties will assist in bounding any scheme for carrying out a system of insurance for the unemployed.

In the presentation of the conclusions reached by the official report in the *National Labor Journal*, the solutions hitherto tried in the field of insurance for the unemployed are divided into four groups: self-help, obligatory insurance, facultative insurance, and assistance to self-help from public funds under conditions requiring the forfeiture of private insurance. These divisions as made in the official report, are also useful as a guide to their final consideration.

Obligatory insurance is the only one which does away with initiative and replaces it by compulsion. It premises experience to show that the workman does not provide for times of enforced idleness, either because he is not in a position to do so or because of neglect. Compulsion in this direction is the foundation of the other great German labor insurance organizations, and it is therefore probable that all projects through which an attempt is being made to solve the question are more or less committed to the idea of obligatory insurance. The difficulties which face an obligatory solution through the labor organizations are only comparatively larger than those to be found in other forms of insurance.

It requires a considerable measure of foresight to participate in a facultative workingmen's fund requiring regular payment of dues for the support of the organization in addition to the payments necessary to carry out the work of self-help. This measure of efficiency, foresight and initiative will always be present, at least to a limited extent, even though no difficulties face the organizations in securing the opportunities for self-help. It is to be presumed that every indication of growth on the part of the organization will show a corresponding growth in the development of the methods of self-help.

The growth of the organization will be governed to only a small extent by the giving of public subsidies. In the main it is dependent upon other factors but with no closer connection with the question of insurance for the unemployed, thereby indicating the narrow limitations of a system which would attempt to solve this question by subsidizing the methods of self-help, inaugurated by the working classes. Under these systems of self-help aid is given only to those who by participation are already helping themselves, and not to those who do not help themselves and who have no power to do so. All of these solutions leave these classes to be dealt with first and last by systems of charity and poor relief. The greatest efficiency is therefore reached by obligatory insurance, as it is far more reaching in its effect, although its execution presents the most difficulties, due to the fact that the determination of the worthy unemployed is particularly difficult, as in practice it is complicated by the fact that the deserving man not being indicated by any outward sign, requires special investigation.

Public insurance for the unemployed should and would generally insure only against involuntary and undeserved lack of employment on the part of efficient men caused by absence of work. This system would by no means insure against every lack of employment. It would only protect against that which is dependent upon industrial conditions and not upon personal disposition, dealings or expression of opinion on the part of the individual who is unemployed. Upon the proportion to which this may be proven depends the right to assistance.

The aim of this insurance is accomplished when the individual is directed towards suitable employment, and the proof of undeserved lack of employment on the part of the man who is worthy of assistance is his acceptance of this work.

As standards are in a large measure a matter of dispute, a consistent determination of the beginning, duration and end of a period of lack of employment, having a depressing effect upon industrial

conditions, is difficult in the case of each workman, as these standards are not always outwardly recognizable, and although the control which obligatory insurance gives operates through general conditions, it still exercises an unusually large influence in the individual cases.

Insurance for the unemployed is differentiated from other forms of insurance in that it would not operate in occasional instances but only to meet an industrial condition affecting the mass, and although this makes it easier to determine the exact time when actual lack of work begins, it makes the control of its duration and its end more difficult as the important thing to be guarded against in obligatory insurance is that it shall not become an incentive to simulation and deceit on the part of the lazy and inefficient at the expense of the industrious and efficient.

This suggests what it might mean in Berlin when, even at a moderate estimate (using but one-half of the figures of 1902, taken under an unfortunate combination of circumstances) it would be necessary to exercise daily control over 30,000 unemployed, to know their identity and their secondary occupations and, in addition, whether suitable work could or could not be found for each one of them. If in your conception of workingmen's insurance you take in the entire laboring population so as to include women and those who work at home, the problem of control increases in the same ratio. The control is unequal to the burdens to be put upon it. Even if it can be exercised over the enormous area reached by the employment bureau, which is not at all certain, it still does not indicate anything which could be taken as definitely indicating the real existence of a condition of lack of work. To be complete this control would have to be exercised through supervision outside the usual channels and in the home, which could hardly be carried out practically and against which the workmen themselves would protest. Where there is no bureau for finding work this supervision soon reaches its limit.

For the same reasons supervision of workmen in the same trade is inefficient

in places where there are no organizations whatever, and in the case of unorganized men who are here to-day and gone to-morrow.

This solution, which in itself seems to be the most efficient, has therefore to overcome many internal difficulties in the matter of supervision, in compelling the acceptance of work and in deciding upon requests for assistance. It has only been tried once in St. Gall, and there it failed probably through insufficient organization, but certainly because of the innate difficulties bound up with its operation and indicated in this statement.

This situation appears to show that the carrying out of a system of obligatory insurance is accompanied by the maximum number of difficulties, and that other solutions are only possible where self-help has already assisted or has at least made a beginning in that direction, and we are still faced by the problem: How is it possible to replace the giving of charity and poor relief where the individual initiative necessary to make provision for the future is wanting?

An illustration of the significant results obtained by the employment bureau is furnished by the Cologne Unemployed Insurance Fund, whose bureau has succeeded in providing almost every member who got out of work with permanent or temporary employment. In the year 1905-6, 1,087 members of this fund, 74 3/10 per cent of the membership, were out of work. Of these 123 received permanent work during waiting time and 902 received temporary occupation, so that only 41 of those insured remained without work during the entire time under discussion, and the fund was compelled to pay for only 13,414 unemployed days, whereas the claims of the insured, had the employment bureau not secured work for them, would have covered 42,128 1/2 days. The results of the work of this employment bureau lightened the burden of the fund by two-thirds, a proof that insurance for the unemployed cannot be separated from the finding of employment, and that the building up of the employment bureau is of the utmost importance, not only in any system of insurance but in dealing with the entire question of the unemployed.

The programs that have been worked

out for the German empire by the scientists and other interested students almost all include either self-help and its subsidization or obligatory insurance. Facultative insurance for the unemployed is not considered as a universal solution of the problem. The schemes of Elm and the *Correspondenz-blatt der Gewerkschaften* include the first principle, while those of Lischendoerfer, Herkner, Zacher, Buschmann, Molkenbuhr and Sonnermann accept the obligatory principle. Doctor Freund, Fanny Imle and Berndt recommend a middle course.

Insurance for the sick is necessarily local in its application. In Germany it is made up in round numbers of 23,000 separate funds and this minute subdivision causes it to appear unsuitable for service in the field required by the unemployed.

Likewise, although accident insurance, as a special qualification, has association with the workmen whom it covers, it nevertheless is organized upon a local foundation, and, with the method governing the composition of its directorate, it could not be easily handled so as to form a useful addition to a system of insurance for the unemployed. Invalid and old age insurance misses every intrinsic relation to the workman without which any insurance for the unemployed seems very difficult of accomplishment.

The result does not seem any more hopeful in this direction, if we take into consideration the fact that these systems were called into being in their time for the purpose of satisfying totally different needs, and that their use in the insurance under consideration would be like grafting a new flower on an old tree. Apparently the question of insurance for the unemployed will be handled internationally in the most diverse ways. France and Norway have taken the lead, and in Denmark definitely formulated propositions are under consideration. On the other hand Belgium and Switzerland have held themselves aloof, while in England the procedure is in another direction. Holland is trying some forms.

The question will apparently be a live one during the next decade and every contribution to its classification will make its solution easier.

Turkey's Debt to the West

Lewis E. Palmer

New York

Up in the hill country of Turkey not far from the terminus of the only railroad that runs from Constantinople to the interior,—the Constantinople-Bagdad Railroad,—is the town of Chalgara. Both the railroad and the town belong to a time that is past. One who has ridden on the railroad says ironically that if the day's ride becomes tiresome, the monotony may be broken, at times,

considered in recent articles the effect of occidental civilization on the orient as seen in India, Siam and Persia. Here is an instance of what eastern education is doing for Chalgara.

Mianzara Caprielian, a graduate of the American College for Girls at Constantinople, visited Chalgara, having heard by chance of the village, and after a two weeks' stay gave up her home and with



A CONSTANTINOPLE MARKET

by running alongside the cars and picking the wild flowers that border the tracks. Chalgara is a town of 30,000 people, with no telegraph and no postal service. There are no industries, except primitive agriculture. A fourth of the population has a form of tuberculosis, really a filth contagion resembling leprosy.

CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS has

a loom, some furniture, a stove and a few books, rented a room and started a settlement. Since July she has been at Chalgara, where she conducts a morning school for twenty-five girls. The women are learning to sew and to keep their homes in some semblance of order. The men are being taught to read, and are also receiving elementary lessons in astronomy, as they begged to have the



A MOSQUE IN CONSTANTINOPLE

causes of the seasons and day and night explained to them. In the few months of the settlement's existence the founder writes that a marked change can be seen in the town.

In many respects the larger and better known cities of Turkey are held down by the same customs that bind Chalgara. In the place of child labor is indolence. Industries are not promoted in any way. Not a factory is built, and not a railroad is planned without the government's permission, which it is difficult to obtain.

Beggars are never suppressed in Turkey. The story is told (and they say it is true) about an American lady who by mistake gave a beggar of Constantinople a gold piece. The man had left his post when she returned, but one of his colleagues told her where he "resided." It was a fine house and at the door was a servant who politely informed the lady that "my master is dressing. He will be down soon." And then the well-groomed beggar, dressed for dinner, appeared and gladly returned the gold piece, exclaim-

ing in the meanwhile that such mistakes were highly embarrassing.

The western vice of drunkenness has not reached Turkey in any appreciable extent: Wine is used freely, but there is little or no drunkenness in the streets. Very little opium is used and there is no drug evil.

The people of the cities are not protected from disease (except cholera and plague) by the authorities. Quarantine is well carried out when necessary, but sanitary laws are not in existence even in Constantinople; yet the life is so much out of doors, that the swift currents of the Bosphorus and the breezes from the Marmora and Black Sea join in helping to keep back contagion. The surrounding country is still Asia Minor the beautiful of which Xenophon wrote and there are no evil conditions that could not be

met and overcome.

The American College for Girls set high on the hills of Constantinople is doing a great work in sending out trained workers who are helping to bring western civilization to Asia Minor.

In the wilds of Albania, still under



AMERICA IN THE EAST



ACROSS THE BOSPHORUS

the control of Turkey, two graduates are at work in the only school for girls in the country in which the language is Albanian, translating school text books into the native tongue. Many Bulgarian girls have returned to their homes and have established centers of cultivation in Bulgaria. Fifteen nationalities are enrolled in the college which includes Persia, Greece and Russia in its field of work. It was started as a high school in 1871, and received its college charter in 1890. It is the only cosmopolitan college for women in Eastern Europe or Western Asia. At present the courses are largely

academic, but the trustees are planning to start courses in the simple industrial arts, in connection with the preparatory classes of the college. Another future work lies in the establishment of a school for nurses which may develop into a medical school in a country where women doctors are necessary, because male physicians are not welcomed in Turkish harems.

It is by such means as the American College for Girls that the best culture and civilization of the West is helping to bring the best from the East.



THE AMERICAN COLLEGE FOR GIRLS ON THE HILL.

Wards of the State in Australia

Alice Henry

• Chicago

Of all Australia's social experiments there is none more deserving the attention of reformers in other countries than the work for the neglected child. That so little has been heard of it outside Australia is due, by a strange contradiction, to the very quality which is its highest claim to commendation, the fact that it is national and not philanthropic.

Instead of constant appeals to private benevolence to support child-saving institutions or organizations, there is a government department which is responsible for everything connected with the children thrown on public charity as destitute, neglected, uncon-

trollable or delinquent. The cost of them is a charge on the general revenue, and not on local rating. This independence of charitable aid is the cause why in Australia where the principles and the administration of child-saving are the best in the world there is no literature on the subject. The books and pamphlets, properly illustrated, in England and America are legion, because by their means public benevolence was stimulated.

Now, however, there is at last at hand a complete account of the history and present developments of child-saving in Australia. *State Children in Australia*,¹

¹ This book may be obtained through the agent general for South Australia, London.



MISS CLARK

by Catherine Helen Spence, published by the State Children's Department of South Australia, supplies the want.

South Australia, the central state of the commonwealth, was the first British colony which was colonized on a plan. Neither the convict nor the adventurer had any share in its founding and the idealism of its founders, such men as Sir William Molesworth and Edward Wakefield, has been amply justified by results. The plan was that of a country of homes and of colonists mutually helpful. So that one of the first self-imposed duties of the State Immigration Department was to care for the new arrivals, to help them to find work, and in case of sickness or the death or desertion of the father of a family, to see that the sick or the children were cared for.

From this recognition of simple primitive communal duties, has grown the present system of state care for children, and although South Australia possesses by far the most complete as it had

the earliest arrangements for this purpose, still the same general principles hold good in all the states.

As time went on and the number of children orphaned or deserted decreased in numbers, the evils of having them brought up in the Destitute Asylum, which was very like a workhouse, strongly impressed Miss Emily Clark, a cousin of Miss Florence and Miss Rose Davenport Hill, and at her suggestion an auxiliary society was formed which, following the Scotch plan, had the children boarded out in families. After fourteen years the plan was found so successful that a new government department was created in 1887 under the superintendence of the State Children's Council. For the organization of this Miss Clark and Miss Spence, both active members of the boarding out society, were mainly responsible.

The central idea of the South Australian system is that for the ordinary child deprived of its own home a home with



MISS SPENCE

carefully chosen foster-parents, under the careful supervision of the officers of the department, makes the best substitute. But in these few words is contained a whole philosophy. Adoption is not favored save in the exceptional cases that now and then present themselves. The children have only the community to look to to befriend them. If it is for the community to accept that moral responsibility it is for the community likewise to shoulder the financial burden. Also it is firmly believed in Australia that when the state pays for the care of its child it is in a position to insist upon a higher standard of care than where the child is adopted. But, and this is the point often overlooked by enthusiastic advocates of boarding out all over the world, if widely scattered family homes are to be inspected at all a larger staff of inspectors are necessary than when the children are massed in great numbers in a few institutions.

Just as in probation work an inadequate staff of probation officers means what Homer Folks calls "attenuated probation," so an immense national and comprehensive system of boarding-out implies frequent visits by competent and sympathetic officials if you are not going to have "attenuated inspection."

Each child must be visited at least once in every three months alternately by a man and a woman inspector. Besides this there are ladies' committees whose members also pay visits between times and the local health officer and the school teacher who are expected to report to the department illnesses or absence. When the compulsory age is past and the child begins to earn, oversight is still maintained.

These South Australian workers early learned that the distinction between the neglected child and the delinquent is often a very shadowy one, so that the nominal delinquent may be placed in a family home and the incorrigible, though no police offence may be laid to his credit, may be for a time at least a far better subject for institutional care. The reformatories and industrial schools for both boys and girls are reserved for the strictly difficult cases who are beyond

the powers of the average house-mother to deal with.

South Australia has to its credit that it was the first country to have a legally constituted juvenile court or children's court, as it is termed there. It grew out of the Boston plan of separate hearings and was in operation in 1890 informally, and by 1896 a comprehensive system had been worked out and placed on the statute book. The cases are always heard in private, neither principals nor witnesses in one case knowing anything about any other case.

There are other features about the work of the department that are unique. The problem of the illegitimate infant is treated in a way that no other country, and as far as I know but one city, approaches. If the mother of such an infant has to board out her baby, she may do so with a licensed foster mother. Before the baby is placed with her the home must be visited and passed, and the personal suitability of the nurse and her family approved. Further, except in rare cases, only one infant may be placed in one family, the idea being that one baby as an addition to a working class family will receive all the advantages and much of the affection that comes naturally to the baby in any decent home, the outings and the attention and petting of the older children. All this is impossible where several babies are taken and the nurse makes her whole living through them. The inspector, a woman, sees every child at least once every three weeks and oftener if a baby is ailing. This inspection continues till the child is two years old, and the visits of the inspector, who is also adviser and friend, are anxiously looked for and welcomed. The children are all hand-fed, and yet in a hot climate with a long summer, with children often born weakly and diseased, the death rate has been diminished by a half during the years in which this plan has been carried out. So far as Miss Spence has been able to discover, the city of Leipzig is the only other place which so thoroughly safeguards these tender lives.

The general principles of state responsibility and state oversight, even where

societies and institutions may be privately supported, obtain in the other states, and they are one by one approaching South Australia's ideals. New South Wales only inspects where more than one infant is boarded in one family, but on the other hand carries on the inspection at lengthening intervals up to the age of seven. Victoria's newly passed "infant life protection act," which has abolished many abuses, orders inspection of the same class of infants up till the age of five. In that state they are now for the first time placed under the care of the Department for Neglected Children, it having long been a distress to Victorian women that such unfortunate little ones have been under the inspection of the police. All payments also must be made

through the department. New South Wales is the only other state which manages the department with the aid of a council or controlling board. In the next of the states the secretary is the sole responsible head under a cabinet minister who has to make report to the state legislature.

Miss Spence concludes her illuminating book with these words:

We may hope that in a better social order the number of children thrown on the state will diminish and the natural home, the social unit, will be increasingly the best home for children. Even so, let that good time come; but it will be hastened and not hindered by the care which has been secured for the children of the state and which I am proud to say characterizes the administration dealing with children in all the states of the commonwealth.

Famine Relief Work in Russia

Samuel J. Barrows

Secretary of the American Famine Relief Committee

Russia is a land of problems. You can hardly turn to any point of the social compass without meeting them. They are political, industrial, economic, educational; they are also philanthropic. Give Russia the best government in the world and while some political problems would promptly be settled there would still be enough other problems, educational and economic, to furnish occupation for all the statesmen she could develop for some years to come.

In going through Russia last summer I felt everywhere the pressure of these problems, some of them heavy enough; but I also experienced a feeling of relief. Not only was a large load taken from my own shoulders, but a heavier load has been lifted from the shoulders of the Russian people. A brave, determined fight had been waged against a dangerous famine; and though the suffering and loss of life were not insignificant, the battle was won. It was another victory for the humane sentiment and for organized modern philanthropy. Without it many thousands of lives would have been lost. The famine was driven

back almost inch by inch and at last disappeared before the smiling fields of the new harvest. How delightful it was as we sailed down the Volga to Samara and Saratoff and crossed the Russian steppes, to see the waving grain in the fields and the peasants reaping the harvest! As they took off their hats and greeted the passing strangers riding through villages and across fields, these hardy, industrious peasants hardly suspected the interest which these travelers had in grateful signs of relief and prosperity. It will take a long time to recover from the cold shadow of the famine. Many homes will not only be devoid of comforts, but of bright eyes and prattling tongues, for the mortality of children was great; but it was a relief to know that the new crop would be sufficient for the coming year and render unnecessary the maintenance of kitchens to keep alive thousands of people. Of course, a new harvest by no means settles all the difficulties of the Russian peasant. Too many thousand of them live, for the most part, from year to year within the zone of destitution, or too near the line of dependency. Relief

in this direction must be sought along educational and industrial lines.

The full story of fighting the Russian famine ought to be written. It would present Russia to us in an aspect less familiar than that in which she is most frequently presented to us. We know something of Russian politics, military life, Russian music, art and literature; but then we should have a new conception of Russian philanthropy. I am sorry I have not the material to give even a sketch of the brave band of men and women who against apathy and indifference, developed, organized, secured and directed the resources which finally conquered the famine.

It was a matter of much regret to me that I could not meet at St. Petersburg the president of the Free Russian Economic Society and also Prince Lvoff, president of the Central Zemstvo Committee, to both of which organizations the American committee had sent most of its funds; but I arrived there after the battle was really won, and these earnest and devoted leaders, after weeks of anxiety and exhaustive work, had gone away to take a needed rest. I did, however, have the satisfaction of seeing one eminent leader, Nicolas Shishkoff, already familiar to many readers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, who did more than anyone else to awaken interest in the United States in regard to the conditions in Russia. It was worth making a long journey to find him and his wife in their home in the province of Samara. I know now how long a journey it is from New York to Samara, and appreciate more the self sacrifice which induced Mr. Shishkoff to take it to enlist the sympathy of the English and American people. Going to the edge of the famine district I could see some of the scars which the famine had left behind it. That there were not more of them is due to the efficient way in which relief was organized and dispensed.

At Samara I also saw Dr. Kennard, the English physician who supported by London *Punch* was devoting himself to the relief of the children, and his famine kitchens were still open. From different

friends I learned something of the personnel of those engaged in the relief work, and the methods of working. I had to leave Russia before the meeting of the Central Zemstvo Committee, but correspondence with Mr. Shishkoff kept me informed as to its action. No mere exhibition of receipts and expenditures, however, can give an adequate idea of the enormous difficulties of the work. To deal with a problem like that of the San Francisco earthquake was indeed a great task. But while the sources of aid were equal to the length and breadth of the country, the calamity was confined to a small area. In Russia, however, the problem was inverted. The famine spread over the vast area and aid came from but a few centers. To organize relief work over an area one-third as large as the United States was a task of great magnitude. The same tests as to efficiency, expenditure, and result cannot be applied as to the relief of poverty or distress in a small community. The Russian famine organization was an emergency measure, and emergency methods had to be used in dealing with it.

One of the first difficulties was in the political situation in Russia which diverted the attention of the government on the one hand from relief measures, and on the other hand rendered difficult the work of organization among the famine workers. For like reasons the action of the Duma was greatly delayed.

One of the first things to be done was to organize the relief societies into effective co-operation. This was accomplished by establishing a central relief committee with headquarters at St. Petersburg, through which the claims of the different provinces were considered and relief distributed so as to avoid duplication.

The government bought grain and distributed forty pounds a month to those needing it, through the minister of the interior and through the local police. In many cases this relief was badly administered. It fell into the hands of those who did not need it. Scandals arose. Among them was the case of Gourka, a minister of the crown whose

trial for the diversion or embezzlement of these funds was in progress when I was in Russia.

The government did not establish famine kitchens, and the allowance of forty pounds of grain a month was not given to those under fifty or over fifteen years of age, embracing the greater part of the working population. A child under ten years received but twenty pounds. Thus in a family the children up to fifteen were counted, and in a family of six or seven persons, but three or four received an allowance of grain. The working population had to depend largely upon private charity.

In addition to the monthly allowance of grain which was distributed by the government under the conditions described, a large part of the government money was used for the purchase of seed to sow the next crop. This seed was given in bulk, and the government generally paid a higher price for it than if the grain were bought through private agencies in the open market. Free seed is a form of Russian paternalism confined to famine years. While the amount distributed as a whole was large, the amount coming to any individual farmer was small. He received enough seed for two or three acres. If he had eight or ten acres he had to buy or beg the rest of the seed. The policy of the government was simply to give a sufficient quantity of seed to keep the family alive for the next year.

Many of the evils which usually attend an extension of government relief appeared last summer in the distribution of seed. The government grain was bought by government officials and their agents, frequently by the governors of the provinces, who distributed the same through local chiefs, the village mayor being responsible for the distribution in the villages. Where the land was held in common, as it is in a majority of Russian villages, all the landholders insisted in getting their share of the government grant. This grant was based simply on an estimate or census of needy families who alone were supposed to receive the crown grain. But as the result of the general distribution in villages the average *per capita* was much reduced, so

that a needy family of five or six persons often received but fifty pounds. Prosperous peasants who had money in the bank or some grain in store, demanded their share in the distribution. This made it imperative that private societies should help the families inadequately supplied from the government grant. Strictly speaking forty pounds a month is just enough to keep a man alive. It makes sixty pounds of baked bread, or two pounds for twenty-four hours. This is a scant supply when divided among several persons in a family.

Of the \$80,000,000 spent by the government, about \$30,000,000 were spent for seed and about \$50,000,000 for food. But a large deduction must be made for carrying and distribution. It is estimated that about twenty million people were in receipt of crown grain.

The United Zemstvo organization sprang up during the Russian-Japanese war, which helped rather to increase the gap between the government and the people than to bridge it over. Popular sympathy went, however, to the wounded and sick. The Red Cross Society which has done such splendid work in the United States and other countries fell under a cloud in Russia. The control and disbursement of the funds were in the hands of government officials. It was supposed that the society had a balance of some millions of roubles, accumulated between the Turkish war and the Russian-Japanese war. The money, however, could not be found. Under the distrust and criticism thus awakened, the Zemstvo Organization was formed, and between two and three million roubles (a rouble equals fifty-one cents) were collected. Prince Lvoff who has been so active in famine relief was a member of the committee which devoted itself largely to providing food for the sick and wounded who were taken from the fields. The main work was done in the rear of the army. When the war came to a close the society had a balance of fifty to seventy-five thousand dollars. A proposition made to the local Zemstvo committees that instead of returning the money, it be applied to the Russian famine was unanimously ratified.

The Zemstvo workers did not come to their task without experience, but in the very beginning they met the opposition of the government. In January, 1907; however, the government became convinced that it could not cope with the famine. Not that it could not raise money enough, but that it could not secure people who were competent and unselfish enough to do the work. The Zemstvo members freely gave their services and the work of supervising famine kitchens, seeing that the dinner was served hot and that relief went to those who needed it from early winter until the middle of July, was a long and difficult task. The government on the other hand had to hire people, and whatever advantages the paid worker may have in normal conditions of organized charities, the official agents thus obtained could not compare in efficiency and devotion with the Zemstvo volunteers.

It was under these circumstances, with a corps of devoted workers in every province, district, and village, but without means for their work, that Mr. Shishkoff decided in December, 1906, to go to England and the United States to appeal for aid. It was not until just before his return that the government really woke to the full needs of the situation and decided to give money to the very organization which the American committee had selected to distribute its funds.

It is a satisfactory tribute to the efficiency of the charity workers that the government found after awhile that its own organization was far less able to cope with the situation, and so decided to recognize the Central Zemstvo Association and its affiliated organizations and to work in co-operation with it. A central relief committee was organized under the presidency of Mr. Yermoloff, formerly minister of agriculture and later a member of the Council of the Empire. As members of the Crown Committee there were admitted the president of the Red Cross Society, the president of the Central Zemstvo Committee, Prince Lvoff, and Mr. Galkine-Wraskoy, a member of the Council of the Empire, who had charge of government relief through the employment of peasants on public

works. The minister of the interior was also represented on the commission. This committee decided to make its distributions through the three organizations represented. The sum of two million and a half dollars was given by the minister of the interior from the public treasury. The grant of the Duma was six million dollars. In all it is estimated that the government spent some eighty million dollars in famine relief. When a union was thus effected between the government and private charity things moved on harmoniously and though there had been much suffering the greatest evils of the famine were averted.

Among the active private relief organizations I should mention the Free Economic Society made up of representatives from different organizations throughout the empire. This is an old organization commanding public confidence. Joined with it were representatives of the Teachers' Association and the Pirogoff Society, a medical organization, and several others. These united societies formed a Social Relief Society. Another organization was the Moscow Agricultural Society. In order to avoid duplication, the country was usually divided territorially. These organizations supplemented in many ways the work of the Zemstvo Society.

Prince Lvoff, the president of the Zemstvo Central Committee, is a landed proprietor, and for several years represented the province of Tula in the Zemstvo. He belongs to an old, though not a wealthy family, and has won universal confidence and trust by his work. Another prominent and devoted member of the Central Committee was Count Tolstoi, president of the Zemstvo Board of Oufa. Though bearing the same name as the great author, he is not immediately related to him. Other members of the association were Golovine, the president of the second Duma; Princes Skahovaky and Chelnokoff, secretaries of the first and second Dumas; princes Ordelliani and Kongonshoff, and Baron Miller, president of the Petersburg Zemstvo Board.

Roughly speaking, the receipts of the Zemstvo Organization were about four million roubles, of which three million five

hundred thousand was expended in famine relief, leaving a balance of about four hundred and fifty thousand in the hands of the committee. At the autumn meeting of the organization the accounts were carefully audited and everything was found correct. Nicolas Shishkoff was one of the auditing committee. A hundred and fifty thousand roubles were set apart for the continuance of famine relief in several provinces. The committee is now considering in what form of relief work the balance of the money shall be expended. It is not difficult to find ways in which this money may be used for the relief of conditions growing

out of the famine or the poverty incident to the congested provinces of Russia, but the central committee, while agreeing as to measures, decided, with a conscientious and democratic regard for the local Zemstvos, to submit their plans to them for ratification.

In visiting Russia it was a great satisfaction to know that not only had the American people shown their sympathy for the people of Russia by making a welcome contribution for famine relief, but that the money thus contributed was wisely and efficiently distributed through a conscientious and devoted committee.

The Industrial Viewpoint

Conducted by Graham Taylor

THE VOICE OF LABOR HEARD

In two significant ways in the past few weeks the voice of labor has sought the ear of the nation. One was the series of protest meetings inaugurated by the American Federation of Labor against the recent court decisions, the points of which were discussed in these columns one month ago. The other was the national convention of the Socialist Party held in Chicago to draft a platform and nominate presidential candidates.

Comparison of the trend of thought and of the significant utterances in these two camps of the labor movement affords striking contrast and even more striking similarity. The one organization, with its federation of craft unions, has sought betterment of working conditions principally through direct dealing with employers and through urging specific laws upon national and state legislatures, avoiding participation in campaign politics. The failure to secure desired results in these ways, especially from Congress, drove the Federation of Labor into political campaigns in support of friendly congressmen and in opposition to those who voted against labor bills. The past two years have seen in-

creasing activity by the federation along these political lines. The situation created by the recent court decisions has given immense impetus to this labor invasion of the political field. The success of the British trade unions in securing legislation, through active political effort to counteract the effect of the Taff-Vale decision, has spurred labor in this country to increased hope that it may accomplish similar results by similar tactics. The series of meetings in the large cities of the country is regarded as the opening gun in a systematic scheme of political effort. While not much was said as to possible labor candidates, great emphasis was laid at the Chicago mass meeting upon the necessity of making trade unionists realize that politically they must be independent of the old parties and must be ready to act as a unit, "consigning to political oblivion" candidates who are unsympathetic to organized labor, effectively supporting those who are sympathetic, and solidly voting for their own independent candidate when such action seems advisable. In other words, although most labor leaders would deny the characterization, the invasion of the political field by the

American Federation of Labor seems to be directed along increasingly "class conscious" lines.

OPPORTUNIST SOCIALISM

The Socialist Party, on the other hand, has always stood fundamentally for political action, claiming that its candidates are the true representatives of the working class, and insisting so strongly on the "class conscious" struggle that heretofore it has almost scorned the enlistment under its banner of any except simon pure members of the working class. The Chicago convention, however, indicates a broadening spirit, and especially an increasing opportunism. In this the influence of the Milwaukee group is apparent. In that city under the leadership of Victor Berger and other able men a growing vote and the election of many socialist candidates has strongly impressed upon the local adherents of the party the wisdom of seizing every political opportunity to further any immediate measure in line with socialistic trend. The national platform adopted at Chicago has many planks advocating immediate reforms of this sort, especially in the direction of public ownership. Even so specific a promotion of labor interests is urged as the separation of the present Bureau of Labor from the Department of Commerce and Labor and its elevation to the rank of a department by itself. Moreover, a direct bid for trade union votes is made in a careful address to organized labor which deals with injunctions and other matters of present concern to trade unionists. It is thus sought to capture for the Socialist Party the political agitation stirred up by the Federation of Labor.

To those who think of the Socialist Party as devoted simply to the inculcation of an abstract theory of government and social order, with little bearing upon immediate political development, the present attitude and activity of the party as manifested by the Chicago convention will certainly prove an eye opener.

ARE PARTIES UNITING

Putting two and two together it is easy to discern a very significant rela-

tion between the political agitation of the Federation of Labor and the broader opportunism of the socialists. For the series of protest meetings engineered by the trade unionists has done much to solidify union sentiment into a more or less class conscious political force holding itself increasingly independent of the old parties; while the socialists are making more and more inclusive the "class" in which they desire to awaken "consciousness," and are seeking more than ever to attract trade unionists and progressive liberals into the socialist camp.

Whether these advances by the trade unionists and the socialists, toward the middle ground will go far enough to make any considerable junction of forces remains to be seen. It depends very greatly upon the attitude and action of the old parties with regard to the grievances of labor. But food for reflection may be had from a glance at the situation in Great Britain where the labor party, whose remarkable growth and power came after the Taff-Vale decision, is practically the Socialist Party of Great Britain. It is significant also to recall that the fraternal delegates from the British trade unions to the last convention of the American Federation of Labor frankly expressed their impatience at the slowness of American organized labor to line up politically, and evinced the greatest interest in the efforts of Victor Berger and other socialists in the federation to swing the body toward socialism.

The labor protest mass meeting held in Chicago, at which John Mitchell and Samuel Gompers were the speakers, conspicuously failed to get at the nub of the situation created by the recent court decisions or to outline a plan of action. The socialists have always been accused of emphasizing the crying industrial wrongs of the day and then urging their fundamental philosophy as the remedy, without regard to immediate efforts to right or diminish particular wrongs. Yet this is precisely what President Gompers did at the trade union protest meeting. After merely stating in an incomplete way the situation which has arisen through the court decisions, he scarcely mentioned a definite and practical way for dealing

with the situation, but launched into a lengthy discourse upon the fundamental merits of trade unionism—which everyone in the great audience took for granted. The opportunity to direct action definitely toward legislation counteracting the decisions was practically thrown away.

FOR LABOR'S POLITICAL POWER

The effort to solidify the political influence of labor was evident in the remarks of John Mitchell when he declared that if workmen would break away from the old parties and firmly band themselves together one-sixth of them could control congressional action. It cropped out also in President Gompers's reference to "Miner" Wilson as a workingman in Congress, whose bill would pass if workmen would get together and make their efforts felt. The bill is one seeking in an inadequate way to remedy the situation created by the court decisions.

Their language was different, but there was not much difference in meaning between President Gompers's statement that "the labor movement stands for government by law and not by persons who happen to sit in courts of equity" and William D. Haywood's more vehement declaration at the socialist convention consigning courts and injunctions to the bad place.

While the latter's words expressed a feeling shared by all the socialists, his extreme language was a faithful index of the man's reckless attitude. After the Western Federation of Miners has so unanimously turned him out of the leadership of that organization, it is well for the socialists that they did not confer upon him their nomination for the presidency. If they are looking for trade union votes they cannot afford to honor a man who snarlingly attacked John Mitchell—and that after Mitchell had raised no inconsiderable sum for the Haywood defense when he was on trial for his life.

In many other ways strikingly similar points of view between the trade union meeting and the socialists' were manifest. President Gompers's insistence that the battle of the trade unions at this time is

a battle on behalf of the rights of all the people, on the basis that the rights of a part of the people cannot be jeopardized without jeopardizing the rights of all, is but little different from the statement made at the socialist ratification meeting, that the class conscious struggle for the freedom of the working class is really the line of progress toward freedom for all humanity. The delegate from Texas who thus spoke, emphasized the distinction between "class conscious struggle" and "class hatred." He declared that socialists sometimes make a great mistake in attacking individuals identified with the capitalistic system instead of attacking the system itself. Judged by some of the utterances at the very meeting where these words were spoken, there is urgent need that socialists should take the advice of their "comrade" to heart.

The discussions of the socialist convention on the subject of trade unionism crystallized, as was noted above, in an expression of the friendliest overtures toward organized labor. There was no little argument, however. Delegates from New Jersey and Pennsylvania urged that the appeal of the Socialist Party should be to all workmen whether organized or not. The opposing view was upheld by Algernon Lee of New York, who pointed out that organized labor represents a far larger portion of the working class than the Socialist Party. Victor Berger made the Milwaukee situation plain in a nutshell when he explained that in that city there are "two wings of the working class movement, the Socialist Party always supporting the unions in their fights, and the union men voting the socialist ticket." "I cannot go back to Milwaukee," he said, "and tell them that a socialist convention has refused to consider the trade union question." The same position was taken by many others, one Illinois delegate declaring that the "class struggle is at the factory door," presumably the trade union's firing line.

An interesting evidence of the desire to be more inclusive in their "class consciousness" appeared at the ratification meeting held in Orchestra Hall on Saturday evening, May 16, when the campaign was started for the nominees, Eu-

gene V. Debs and Ben Hanford, who were the candidates in 1904 for president and vice-president. In the convention there had been some mention of the "intellectuals," referring to the literary men and others in the movement who can thus be distinguished from the "proletariat." Speaking of these distinctions, William D. Haywood declared, "I have heard a lot about those words, but want to say that I never use them. I think the Socialist Party should disregard distinctions such as these and should welcome and use any honest brains and ability." The applause which greeted this statement showed unmistakably that this was also the feeling of the rank and file.

CLEVELAND LOSES A CHANCE

The street car union in Cleveland has lost a great opportunity, through its strike at the very beginning of Cleveland's large experiment in municipalization. The time was not one for stickling over promises made under the old régime. The interest not only of the city but of a national movement for extending municipal functions depends upon the good spirit and effective co-operation of all the citizens of Cleveland. Upon none does this responsibility rest with greater weight—and therefore with greater opportunity—than upon the street car men of Cleveland. The trades union movement is little stronger in promoting the interest of its own members than in its demonstrating real concern for the welfare of the whole community. A unique opportunity for most effectively making such a demonstration was given this Cleveland labor organization whose failure to rise to the situation is greatly to be deplored.

The contention of the employees that they had been promised by the old company an increase of wages seems to have little bearing upon the present situation. Nearly everyone else appears to understand that this promised increase of two cents an hour was offered to affect public sentiment and especially that of the street car men at a time when the old company was fighting in the last ditch. To consider promises then made as binding upon the new Municipal Traction

Company, with the lower fare and other new conditions appears utterly foolish.

The National Amalgamated Association of Street Railway Employes, with W. D. Mahon at its head, has frequently taken a most commendable stand in requiring local unions to live up to contracts and agreements. Seldom has more severe condemnation been meted out to a local trade union than that which President Mahon gave in plain terms to the New York subway workers at the time of their strike and broken contract. It is to be regretted that the national officers in this emergency did not seem to appreciate the opportunity which was in the grasp of the Cleveland Local Union, and to have impressed upon it the far-sighted wisdom of graciously waiving any rights it thought it had in the promise of the old company. The men, however, have voted to return to work pending the report of the arbitrators.

In contrast with the Cleveland situation is the firm and careful way in which President Mahon has handled a threatened strike in Chicago. The local union in that city has become involved in a controversy over the continued employment of a few men who have lost good standing in the union. The contention is that under the contract between the union and the company only union men are to be employed. The delinquent members sought an injunction to restrain the union from taking steps to secure their discharge by the company. The more hot-headed men in the union urged immediate strike. The good sense of President Mahon counseled them to await the court's decision upon the application for the injunction. This decision has now been made. It refused to grant the injunction, and upholds the contract between the union and the company, including the provision concerning the employment of union men only. The Chicago union members having paid their cago strike has been avoided, the delinquents and regained their standing.

Mayor Johnson in Cleveland stands firm in his insistence upon the maintenance of order. In this he should have the support not only of the public but of the union.

Social Forces

By the Editor

THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU

A convincing argument in favor of the plan for a bureau in the interests of children in the federal government is to be found in the handbook of child labor legislation of which the new annual edition has just been issued by the Consumers' League. The admirable, brief introduction to this publication refers directly to this subject among others, but the facts concerning the chaotic and, even yet, on the whole backward condition of the legislation on this subject in our several states, speak even more eloquently of the need for further public enlightenment. The existing Bureau of Labor, Census Bureau, Bureau of Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, and Bureau of Education, all have certain limited and fragmentary responsibilities for the welfare of the nation's children.

Even these responsibilities, however, might be discharged far more completely if they were concentrated. The labor of children enters into the relations between employer and employe, and into the general question of the condition of labor with which the Federal Bureau of Labor deals, but this very fact is anomalous and deplorable. There should be no such thing as child labor, and while it exists it should have the serious attention of the government, not as a normal condition to be investigated and regulated like adult labor in mines and factories, but as an abnormal and temporary condition to be eliminated as speedily as possible. It should be investigated and dealt with not as an industrial or commercial problem, but as one affecting the very life and well being of the race, as a problem of health, education, morals and social economy. With all recognition of the usefulness of such partial and sporadic attention as the Labor Bureau has been able to give the subject, it is obvious that the interests of children are literally of vital, national concern and that they should be approached from quite another point of view than that from which strikes, wages and the conditions of adult labor are appropriately treated. Nor does the Census Bureau serve the purpose which a bureau of children would serve. The collection of certain very limited, statistical information at stated periods is of value. Unfortunately we have not much of it, and what we have is out of date when it appears. The handbook repeats the strictures often made in its earlier editions on the federal and state governments, that they should leave to a private agency the collection and dissemination of this information concerning the statutes now in force pro-

hibiting or restricting child labor, either directly or through provisions for compulsory school attendance. Slow and antiquated methods of making available the results of investigations of the Census Bureau in this field go far to destroy what value they might otherwise have, and the scope of such inquiries as have been made is so narrow as to leave us in helpless and humiliating ignorance. Quantitative investigations may be made by the Census Bureau, but we need a children's bureau to determine what information is desirable and to consider what to do after it has been obtained.

The rudimentary Bureau of Public Health in the Treasury Department commands constantly increasing respect for its work in controlling epidemics and its scientific inquiries in various directions, notably, for example, in its current investigation of the hook worm. If this bureau should eventually outgrow the limitations imposed by its origin in the Marine Hospital service, and should become in reality a bureau of public health, it would naturally include within its activities the investigation of many problems connected with epidemic and infectious diseases of children and other dangers to their health.

But a children's bureau would seek to promote the health, vigor, physical well being and efficiency of children, and would thus begin where a health bureau ends. It would utilize the results of all investigations by Labor Bureau, Census Bureau and Health Bureau, so far as they bear upon the welfare of children. It would directly concern itself with the improvement of the human race by the improvement of its physical and mental stock. Even the Bureau of Education, however active and efficient it may become, cannot cover the wide range of activities which would naturally devolve upon the children's bureau. Orphanage, illiteracy, illegitimacy, infant mortality, race suicide and race degeneracy, child dependency, juvenile delinquency with all its attendant issues of children's courts, reformatory, probation and parental schools, and the more complete socializing of the public school system, with the broad issues which this involves are among the problems which we now neglect entirely or in part, but which are of national importance, and which in the degree and manner proposed are clearly within the constitutional province of the Federal Government.

It is not suggested that the national government should take up all or perhaps any of these subjects for direct remedial or preventive legislation. Research and publicity, on lines strictly analogous to the well established activities of many existing bureaus is the aim of those who advocate the children's bureau among whom this journal has long since gladly enrolled. The National Child Labor Committee and the National Consumers' League are, so far as we are aware, the only other agencies which are persistently and continuously working to bring public opinion to the support of this measure so clearly in the public interests, so certain to be opposed, just as the Bureau of Forestry and other of our present bureaus are opposed because they expose and undermine the selfish and anti-social policies of a comparatively few individuals of the exploiting class. We hope that others—organizations and individuals—will rally to the support of the proposed children's bureau.

CHARITIES

AND The Commons

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

DIRECTOR OF THE PSYCHIATRIC CLINIC

Dr. Adolf Meyer has been unanimously elected director of the new Psychiatric Clinic in connection with the Johns Hopkins Hospital and professor of psychiatry in the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, of which announcement is made on another page. He is a native of Switzerland and obtained his degree at the University of Zurich in 1892. He came to America in 1893 and has since held positions of large responsibility at the University of Chicago, the Illinois State Hospital at Kankakee, the State Hospital at Worcester, Mass., where he was also a *privat docent* in connection with Clark University, and finally in New York, where he has had the position of director of the State Pathological Institute in charge of the pathological work of all the state hospitals for the insane. In the latter capacity he has spent much time in directing the clinical and pathological work of the state hospitals and has shown great teaching ability. He has been a voluminous writer and many of his papers have displayed marked technical ability and wide knowledge as well as a broad grasp of mental and nervous diseases. It is confidently expected that his services in developing the new clinic at the Johns Hopkins Hospital will prove of great value, and that it will serve as a model for other similar clinics in the United States. He will assume his duties there in September, 1909.

THE CHICAGO PLAY FESTIVAL

The Chicago Play Festival, which was held on Saturday, June 20, proved to be vastly more successful even than the noteworthy festival of last year. The Playground Association of Chicago rallied for the occasion over 2,000 participants for a program which filled up three long sessions in one day. The evening session brought out no less than 18,000 onlookers, while the attendance for the whole occasion was well over 25,000. These figures give some indication of the festival's significance. Last year the participants numbered 1,500, and the attendance about 5,000. As a national event, the festival was of great importance, and compared favorably with last year's, even though the latter was attended by the 200 delegates to the first convention of the Playground Association of America. The festival just held drew over sixty out-of-town people, representing a territory from Massachusetts and New Jersey all the way to Utah, and from Minnesota and Canada to Florida, while Paris and Honolulu contributed two of the most interested spectators.

In the festival program were children, young people and adults, while national groups in larger numbers than last year showed various folk games and national dances which were even more familiar to them as a heritage than as an exercise which they had learned.

With the magnificent setting of the recreation center, and the enthusiastic co-operation of Chicago's commingled people, representing nationalities and elements which could be enlisted in scarcely any other city, the annual Chicago play festival seems already to have established itself as an occasion of large and increasing significance to the whole country.

**IS A 10-HOUR WORKDAY
TOO SHORT FOR CHILDREN**

The friends of child labor reform have long contended that leading manufacturers, merchants and other employers of labor are among the chief champions of better conditions. It has frequently been pointed out by the secretary and other representatives of the National Child Labor Committee that practically every step in the development of protective laws in England has been taken with the approval and sometimes under the leadership of employers. This does not mean that employers have been united in desiring the restriction of child labor, but that prominent among them are always to be found some far-sighted enough to understand that the employment of ignorant and undeveloped children is an economic as well as a social loss.

It is with disappointment, therefore, that the friends of working children read the appeal sent out June 3 by the Board of Trade in Camden, calling upon similar bodies in other New Jersey cities to oppose certain features of the present child labor law in that state. The circular is as follows:

The state labor commissioner having recently sent out notices of his intention to enforce section 9 of the factory laws of 1904, which reads as follows:

"9. No minor under the age of sixteen years shall be employed, permitted or allowed to work in places coming under the provisions of this act, more than ten hours in a day or fifty-four hours in a week; any corporation, firm or person permitting or allowing any violation of the provisions of this section, shall be liable to a penalty of fifty dollars for each offense."

The various industries in the state employing minor help are placed at an unfair advantage in competition with those in our neighboring states.

While we believe in safeguarding the interests of minor labor in every possible way, this notice brings up some other of the obnoxious features of the present law, such as the requirements of birth or baptismal certificates, passports, etc., and calls for concerted action on the part of employers of labor in this state.

Therefore, be it Resolved, That the secretary be instructed to communicate with the boards of trade or similar organizations in this state asking for an expression of their view on this question. Be it further

Resolved, That if the replies received warrant it, the president of the Camden Board of Trade be authorized to issue a call for a meeting to be held in Camden of representatives from all the boards of trade or similar organizations of this state, to consider the question of employment of minors and to frame a labor law which will be equitable and fair to employe and employer to be submitted to the next Legislature.

We venture the prediction that this astonishing position of Camden business men will not find a sympathetic response. The only possible ground for apprehension is in the fact that New Jersey did take one backward step. Within the past five years the law forbidding the employment at night of all women and all boys under sixteen has been repealed and New Jersey holds the unenviable record of offering less legal protection to her working children in the twentieth century than she did in the nineteenth. But we were hardly prepared for this announcement that prominent men in that state are determined to invite the condemnation of right thinking people by urging a second backward step. It is true that in the matter of hours, Pennsylvania and Delaware are behind New Jersey. On the other hand New York, which is as prominent an industrial rival, forbids the employment of children under sixteen for more than eight hours a day in factories or for more than nine hours in stores and as messengers. But what is most enlightening as to the spirit of this resolution is the reference to "some other of the obnoxious features of the present law, such as the requirements of birth or baptismal certificates, passports, etc." Until the present law requiring proof of age of working children, New Jersey was notorious for the exploita-

tion of little boys and girls. Thousands of children in that state have been rescued from injurious and unprofitable labor and placed in school by the very "obnoxious features" against which the Camden Board of Trade protests. Overshadowed by Philadelphia, where parental perjury is fostered by law and little children of any age are consigned to the store and factory, Camden enterprise evidently chafes under the yoke of a higher law, and it is doubtless this unwholesome association which has prompted the appeal to New Jersey employers for a reversion to that undesirable neglect of childhood in which Pennsylvania among the northern industrial states now stands alone.

ABOUT WOMEN WAGE EARNERS

"Women are still doing most of the weaving, most of the baking, most of the sewing of mankind," said Miss Adams in an address several years ago, "but they are doing it under new and different conditions from those present in the household industries of our grandmothers." "What we want to know," she said, "is at what cost are they doing these things; if this generation or succeeding generations pay too heavily for it; and what, if anything, can be done to improve conditions of work?"

Such interrogations as these on the part of social workers, are back of the general stock-taking which is going forward as to the conditions surrounding women in industry. In addition to the large work planned under special appropriations made to the United States Department of Commerce and Labor for a general investigation of women's and children's work, settlements, charitable societies, state bureaus of labor and other organizations are carrying on inquiries which will afford fragmentary but suggestive information as to various phases of the work problem as it faces the five million women wage earners of the country.

Any statement of current investigations in this field must take into account

the long sustained, intensive work of the Consumers' League of the City of New York, dealing with mercantile establishments that have grown in number from eight to fifty. This was the first in the field, beginning in 1890, and it escapes the limitations of the snapshot survey from which many investigations of the work of women and children in this country suffer, official and unofficial alike. The inquiry into living conditions of working women and girls which has been conducted for a year by the National Consumers' League should have the same value of intensive work, for it is confined to those who live away from home, and is to be carried forward as an integral part of the work of the national league with a view to ascertaining a reasonable basis for a minimum wage in manufacture, such as is enforced by the Consumers' League of New York City in the stores on its white list. For nine years the national league has recommended factories in the needle trades which meet its requirements as to hours, night work, child labor and absence of tenement house work. This has involved continuous study of working conditions in factories in the stitched white underwear trade and in the tenements and institutions into which this trade overflows. A conspicuous investigation made in a short time, in contrast with the foregoing patient effort, was the research done in November and December last, by Florence Kelley and Josephine Goldmark into the official industrial literature of England, France, Germany, Switzerland, Belgium and Italy, dealing with the working hours of women in manufacture and the effect of overwork. This was done under the direction of Louis D. Brandeis of Boston who gave his services as counsel for the state of Oregon in the case of Curt Miller, involving the constitutionality of the Oregon statute establishing ten hours as the maximum working day for women in manufacture. The unanimous decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, sustaining the Oregon law, followed this work. The compilation of published material is now being extended. A staff of readers is engaged under Miss Goldmark's direc-

tion in working up sources in several languages, and an exceedingly valuable bibliography will be forthcoming.

The National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations has been doing a wide-spread work under the supervision of Annie Marion MacLean, professor of sociology, Adelphi College, Brooklyn, who has had a staff of upwards of fifty workers—college women of special training. They have made a study of selected industries in eight New England cities, five New Jersey cities, New York, Chicago, Michigan, Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, Washington, Oregon and California, and southern mill villages, bearing on the general problem of wage earning women and social efforts in their behalf. One of the special studies carried on under Dr. MacLean is that of women in the mining regions of Pennsylvania, — covering sixty-six towns.

IMMIGRANT WOMEN WORKERS

Readers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS are familiar with the work of the Inter-Municipal Research Bureau under the administration of Frances A. Kellor—the work dating back to 1902 when Miss Kellor made her initial investigations of employment agencies for women. The recent bill which passed the New York State Legislature providing for the appointment of an immigration commission, is the direct result of investigations carried on by the bureau. This New York commission will emphasize the interests of the state as distinct from those of the nation, dealing more with the conditions under which immigrants are in residence than with the problem of restriction. Under the bureau's general inquiry into the protection of immigrants, certain separate investigations have borne upon the condition of wage-earning women—notably investigations of employment agencies, unemployment and immigrant women in immoral houses; moreover, a special inquiry has been carried out as to the social, industrial and moral conditions of newly arrived immigrant girls in Boston, New York, Chicago and Philadelphia.

The National Council of Jewish Women is studying the living and industrial conditions of Jewish immigrant girls and the immigration committee of the Woman's Trade Union League of Chicago has just issued an interesting report covering the period from July 15, 1907, to April 1, 1908. This includes an interesting table showing the ages at which the girls who were located came to Ellis Island, to whom they came, the previous and present employment and living conditions. The work of this immigration committee is part of the co-operative work which begins at Ellis Island and which is carried forward in four cities under the general instigation of the Inter-Municipal Research Committee.

The organization of an immigration committee in Chicago, under the chairmanship of Judge Mack, will emphasize in the mid-western field the interest which the states have in immigration and will supplement in a definite way the general inquiries carried forward by the staff working under Professor Jenks and Dr. Neill of the Federal Immigration Commission.

TRADES OF WOMEN WHO WORK

An investigation of industrial and living conditions of self-supporting women is being carried on by the Research and Protective Association of Philadelphia, the field work being done by Frances Perkins. Last year Miss Breckinridge induced the University of Chicago Press to republish an English work covering the women employing industries of Birmingham, as no such complete data for a city were available in this country. This fact gives special interest to this Philadelphia study and to that section of the work of the Pittsburgh Survey, of Charities Publication Committee, which is being carried out by Elizabeth B. Butler, formerly secretary of the Consumers' League of New Jersey. Pittsburgh is not primarily a woman's town in the sense that Fall River is; but in the department stores, the clothing trades, and cigar manufactories, as well as the machine rooms which are invaded each year in larger number by women, it offers a

representative opportunity for investigation.

A consistent study of the economic elements entering into the life of working girls has been made by Irene Osgood, of the University of Wisconsin, who will report to the state commissioner of labor on the women in the factories of Milwaukee. This study will cover the working history of girls from the beginning of their employment. Miss Osgood began by working on the pay rolls, and by visits in the homes of working women she has accumulated the personal budgets of 100. These economic and household facts will afford an interesting background for her presentation of the actual conditions of employment within working hours.

Under the direction of Mary Van Kleeck, the Alliance Employment Bureau, the co-operative undertaking in which a number of New York settlements are interested, has addressed itself to the detailed study of one trade at a time in the greater city. The trades now under investigation are millinery and book-binding, and the inquiry lays special stress on the trade progress of trained and untrained workers on the one hand, and on the health of workers on the other. Kindred to this are the studies made by the fellows of the College Settlements Association in co-operation with the work of the Alliance Employment Bureau, a study by Mabel E. Norris of boarding-houses where girls of low earning capacity can live; an examination of the physical condition of working girls including an investigation of the factories where they are employed and of their home conditions by Dr. Louise Hutcheson; a study of the irregularity of the employment of women in factories by Louise C. Odencrantz, and the inquiry carried on by Caroline F. Gruner, who will report to a joint committee of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae and the College Settlements Association, on the unskilled work of younger girls. This is a study of 200 cases of school girls who, without training, have gone into the factories. Harriet W. Titlow for the Alliance Employment Bureau is studying the opportunities for women trained in applied design.

HEALTH OF WOMEN WORKERS

This list is by no means exhaustive. For instance, Alice Spink of Greenwich House is making a study of women in industry in Greenwich Village (the lower West Side of New York city). William Hard of Chicago is working up a vigorous series of articles for *Everybody's Magazine* on Women in Industry. Normal College Alumnae House is studying the occupations of girls from fourteen to sixteen in the Bohemian district of the middle East Side. The Illinois Bureau of Labor Statistics is investigating from a pay-roll basis the working women in department stores. A general study of women in industry in Indiana is being made at the University of Indiana. The Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics of Maine has recently published reports on the women wage earners of Portland and women and children in the sardine factories of the state. The Woman's Trade Union League of Chicago, through its physician, is getting together some valuable data as to the physical reactions of conditions of work upon the health of women employes. Under the President's Homes Commission, which is carrying on general investigations in the District of Columbia, an inquiry has been made by Dr. Kober as to health conditions as they affect women workers, while the large work planned under the Industrial Diseases Commission which is to report next year to the governor of Illinois may throw still further light on the physical welfare of women in industry legislation. Dr. Kober's report is now in press.

Special point is lent to all this work of investigation by the recent United States Supreme Court decision to which reference has already been made, which takes the position that the health of women workers falls well within the scope of legislative and legal cognizance. Mr. Brandeis's opinion of the available information on the subject is an interesting commentary on investigations now going forward. What we want above all, he

says, are more and more facts as to the industries and their relation to health. To go back to our introductory sentence: In any complete sense Miss Addams's question is still to be answered.

CATALOG OF SOCIAL INVESTIGATIONS

The statement of investigations in the field of women in industry which has just been given is in no sense complete. Other important investigations are at a confidential stage where information cannot properly be made public. The list, however, is full enough to give a notion of the vigorous inquiries which are now going forward in this one field of social work; and to illustrate not only the variety of agencies which are being brought to bear upon the problems involved, but the necessity for a more complete pooling of information and methods such as will make the resulting material an easier matter for comparison and public understanding. As one factor toward meeting this need, a catalog of social investigations is being built up in connection with CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS as part of the work of its National Publication Committee. The data here published on women's work are drawn from the initial files of this catalog and illustrate the serviceability which can be expected from it. Information as to further lines of investigation in this or other fields is urgently requested from our readers. Copies of outlines and blanks will be kept on file, so that those starting pieces of work along a given line may have access to schedules which other investigators have used and tested. Data marked as confidential will not be given to the public in general or even to those directly interested unless so desired; but it is hoped that, through the organization of this responsible registration bureau, fairly complete information can be gathered as to subjects of research, persons or organizations engaged, and the findings and results of investigations. The plan will have the very great advantage of putting before the readers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS immediate and authentic statement of the results of investigations

wherever made; and the various adjustments of the scheme to the national program of Charities Publication Committee toward getting the facts of social conditions before the public readily suggest themselves.

The East Side and the Late Panic

[Written by one of its own]

Mayer Shoenfeld

It is a pretty tough proposition for one of my kind to put into print some facts which I believe will be of interest to the CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, especially to the Charity Organization, students, settlement workers, neighborhood workers, school workers, and all kinds of workers, who are now interested in ascertaining the actual conditions on the East Side, whether there is any special suffering on the East Side caused by the late financial panic.

Were it not for the belief that the intellectual readers of the CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS will judge what I have really got to say and not how I say it, I would not go into the trouble at all to write and break my head how to frame this or that point, and be obliged to continually tickle Webster's for relief.

There is a saying in Yiddish "Ask the patient, not the doctor, as to the symptoms of the disease." We down here on the East Side are continually being investigated and even that would harm little were it really a proper, accurate, and thorough investigation with the result of solving this or that problem.

These investigations are external of the body East Side. The real sickness is internal and so deep into the blood vessels that the wiseacres, even the graduates of the settlements have not got within reach.

As a life-long resident of the good old East Side, I maintain that the kitchens for the school children are doing much more harm than good. First, it makes of the child a beggar. Second, it infuses into the mind of the boy and girl a sort of discontent against the whole system of

society, and when we are told that this thing works fine in Germany and in France, I claim that there is the foundation of discontent and one of the causes of ingrown socialism from childhood on.

Whatever help there is for the poor child, let that go through its parents. It is enough that the father and mother should feel that they are compelled to take charity.

One more objection against this novel charity and that is that it causes a gradual lukewarmness and indifference on the part of these youngsters towards their parents. So much for that.

As to the questions, why should there be, or is there any particular reason for suffering on the East Side than anywhere else, I most emphatically maintain that there is, and further claim that the people of the East Side are the very first ones to suffer in the event of an industrial or financial panic and that they are the very last ones to get the benefit of prosperity. Strange as this may be, it is a fact just the same, and I am in a position to prove it with undisputed facts.

The bulk of residents on the East Side or better say not less than sixty per cent of the people living on the East Side derive their source of income directly or indirectly from the needle industries such as clothing, cloaks, shirts, wrappers, underwear trades, etc. It is further demonstrated that at least two-thirds of these products are sold outside of New York city. It is sold by the wholesale manufacturer, throughout the country, principally in the manufacturing towns.

It must be remembered that the wage earner, even the farmer, buys clothing with the surplus of his earnings. Thus I mean to say that the wage earner or farmer, when he receives his pay and starts to divide his earnings for the necessities in life, the wearing apparel is the last on the bill of fare. First comes rent, second, eatables, and the very last clothing. Therefore, we will readily see how the whole of the needle industries are dependent on the general condition of the country.

No matter how much I would like to

avoid to fall back on statistics in order to cover my point of view I am, nevertheless, in possession of some facts, call them statistics if you please.

The amount of the annual income to the homes of the East Side in normal times is about thirty-five million dollars, of which about twenty-five millions come from the needle trades, about six millions from the local trades and the rest from miscellaneous, such as city, state, government salaries, etc. Nearly the total amount of these thirty-five million dollars remain on the East Side. It comes at first in the shape of wages. It goes to the grocer, butcher, landlord, doctor, lawyer, shop keeper, push cart man, etc. It is exchanged several times over again from hand to hand, nearly all in the neighborhood, and finally reaches the East Side banks into two departments, the business man to the exchange and the wage earner to the savings department. Now since the mass of clothing workers are out of work for the last seven to eight months and gradually took their savings out of the banks and lived on that as long as it lasted, they simply await patiently for better times throughout the country before their branch of trade will revive. In the meantime the worker must borrow from the butcher and grocer, is unable to pay the rent, the small business man must give things on credit, the landlord is hesitating whether he should dispossess Mr. A—— an old tenant for non-payment of rent or take in Mr. B——, who is also out of work and knows not if he will be a better rent payer than Mr. A——.

The credit of the East Side business man and landlord is naturally cut down in the bank because he is unable to keep up his bank balance and the whole East Side is in a sort of a pessimistic mood, and when on top of all that some ladies and gentlemen, no doubt well meaning and charitably inclined, are opening soup houses for the children, they are adding more scare into the neighborhood, making things worse instead of better, and it looks as if the whole East Side is bankrupt.

Johns Hopkins Psychiatric Clinic

William A. White

Superintendent Government Hospital
for the Insane, Washington, D. C.

The more than generous gift of Mr. Phipps to the Johns Hopkins Hospital of \$750,000 for erecting a psychiatric clinic and maintaining it for ten years deserves more than passing mention.

It seems that Mr. Phipps has been especially interested in the questions connected with the care of the insane for some years past and his present gift is the outcome of his interest. The object of the psychiatric clinic which will be built as a result of his generosity, will be in the main to receive incipient cases of mental disorder, especially those amenable to treatment without the necessity of formal commitment.

The psychiatric clinic as a means of approaching the problems of insanity is no longer an experiment. It has been established in many places upon the continent for some years past and in every instance is doing admirable work. Psychiatric clinics exist at Munich, Tübingen, Berlin, Florence, and many other European cities. The United States has been rather slow to follow the example of the Continental countries but has established already a clinic in connection with the City Hospital in Albany, N. Y., and a special building is devoted to the purposes of a psychiatric clinic in connection with the University at Ann Arbor, Mich., while Boston, Philadelphia and New York will shortly follow the lead of these other cities.

In the methods of dealing with the insane throughout the United States there is no intermediate step between the perfectly sane individual clothed with all his legal rights and enjoying the freedom of citizenship, and the committed lunatic in a state hospital. As a result friends and relatives, and the patients themselves are deterred from taking steps to seek relief from mental symptoms until the last possible moment, and the state hospitals receive, therefore, only cases well advanced in their mental disorder, and oftentimes too late to accomplish any-

thing in the way of curative treatment. Aside from this condition that immense mass of cases known as "border-land cases" that occupy an intermediate position between sanity and insanity rarely get into the state hospitals and probably never come under the care and observation of experienced alienists, because after all there are still very few alienists outside hospitals for the insane. It is this great mass of border-land cases that is most pregnant with possibilities for solving the problems of insanity, especially of its origin and mechanism. The cases after they are well established and get into the state hospitals are extremely difficult to unravel, and if we are to learn the conditions that bring about disorder of mind and the way in which they do it, we must have cases to study in their incipency, and such cases cannot be found except rarely in our large institutions for the insane.

The psychiatric clinic, therefore, serves many ends. It enables the patients suffering with incipient mental disorder to secure care and treatment at the time when, if ever, his malady is curable. It places the patients with mental disorder on the same basis as other sick persons, opening the wards of the hospital for their treatment without any of the preliminary legal obstructions to entrance thereto. It affords invaluable material for the study of deviations from the normal in mental life, opening up a field from which we cannot but have the greatest expectations that it may perhaps enable us to unravel the problems of the insane mind. It affords a place and the means for research work in mental disease. By being connected with the university it gives opportunity for students to see cases and for frequent clinics before the advanced classes of the medical department.

The present situation of most of the state hospitals is such as to be quite inaccessible to medical classes, and if we are to educate a generation of alienists competent to deal with the insanity question they must have proper experience with such cases as the psychiatric clinic affords. In all its several spheres of usefulness it tends to secure the confidence of the public and mould its opinion

with reference to insanity problems and in that way and as a result of the work it does, it is a potent factor in the development of psychiatry along the most valuable of all lines—preventive medicine.

Preventive medicine is only beginning to awake to its possibilities, among which insanity is bound to figure so largely in the years to come. Although we by no means despair of being able to treat conditions of disordered mind intelligently in the future, and in fact are doing so at present, yet the class of cases that are committed as insane show a very little if any larger percentage of recoveries than they did some years ago. This discouraging feature of psychiatry naturally tends to divert the efforts of the alienists to the conditions of prevention, and in this work the psychiatric clinic is going to play a very large and very important part. It will be the center of information on psychiatry wherever it is located, and every city of any size should have one, while from it as a center when it is properly organized, will radiate information and instruction in this branch of medicine. Already faint efforts are being made, particularly in Boston, to give public courses of lectures on psychiatry. This is the natural result of the experience in attacking the tuberculosis problem with which so much has been done.

Another effort in the way of prevention will probably be made before long by supervising the instruction of the school children and endeavoring to discover the cases that have faulty mental trends and so regulate their school life as to correct these.

These are only a few features which are suggested by Mr. Phipps's munificent gift. While the Johns-Hopkins University is to be congratulated upon its new department, I think the greatest good that will follow will be by directing public attention to this class of needs. Efforts have been made for a long time in many quarters to get recognition for the psychiatric clinic. This project of Mr. Phipps will assist in securing that recognition and will help other cities in building up psychiatric departments for

the investigation of the causes of mental disorder. It is only by a comprehensive movement on the part of the whole country that anything material can be accomplished in the matter of the prevention of insanity and I trust that the psychiatric clinic at Johns-Hopkins will be a substantial stimulus to that movement.

The Senate Monopoly of Child Labor

Florence Kelley
New York

It is a meager share of protection that Congress has meted out to the working children in the long expected District of Columbia child labor bill. Far from being a model for the states to copy, it is, in one important matter, a terrible example. For it unqualifiedly exempts children in the service of the Senate. Children employed in theatrical exhibitions are exempted and they may appear upon the written consent of any one of the commissioners of the District of Columbia who are given entire discretion. Finally, it exempts all children between the ages of twelve and fourteen years (in the discretion of the judge of the juvenile court) "upon evidence satisfactory to him that the labor of such child is necessary for its support, or for the assistance of a disabled, ill or invalid father or mother, or for the support in whole or in part of a younger brother or sister or a widowed mother."

Obviously, continuing scrutiny of the economic condition of wage-earning families will henceforth form the chief occupation of Judge De Lacey of the juvenile court, who is authorized to give hearings for granting and revoking permits to the exempted children. If the law is to fulfill its purpose, he must personally and thoroughly acquaint himself with all the working places for which he refuses or awards permits throughout the District of Columbia, these being valid only for use "at any occupation or employment not in his judgment dangerous or injurious to the health or morals of such child."

It is, however, possible to estimate the effects of work upon the morals of a boy or girl of twelve years only by knowing well the moral character of the employer and of the fellow workers with whom the child is in contact both at work and at the noon hour. Evil communications of older employes are no trivial part of the moral dangers which await young children in many seemingly harmless places.

This function of investigating the morbidity and the economic status of the working population, and the sanitary and moral conditions of workplaces, for the purpose of granting exemptions from the child labor law to children twelve years old is, of course, wholly alien to the legitimate work of a juvenile court.

Every exemption weakens a law and, in the case of the District of Columbia statute, it withdraws protection from the children already handicapped by the loss or disability of a parent, or by excessive poverty. In other words, it places upon the little children a burden of self-support, or family support, which should properly be borne by the community.

The American people are deeply stirred by the contrast between working children and unemployed men. This statute, thus robbed of much of its value and made a means of weakening the juvenile court, can be regarded only as an initial measure, to be strengthened by amendment at the next session of Congress and made what its framers hoped it might now be, a model for all the states.

Industrial Issues at the Chicago Convention

Graham Taylor

The most significant feature of the Republican National Convention,—its manœuvring, its discussions and its platform,—is the unprecedented emphasis laid at every point upon industrial issues. They were the lines of battle along which all the preliminary skirmishing was done, where the opposing forces massed their strength and where the brunt of the battle royal was borne. Presages of the impending conflict preceded the convention in telegraphic announcements of the

skirmishing over the anti-injunction plank between the administration and the factional camps as they approached the field of action. Among the first arrivals were the executive councils of the American Federation of Labor and of the National Manufacturers' Association. Both of them opened headquarters as prominently as did the candidates for the presidential nomination.

The resolutions' committee became the seat of war. The forces that clashed there were reinforced by heavy artillery which continuously landed its shots at long range from the strongholds of employing capital, from the industrial constituencies of the delegates and from the White House and War Department at Washington. The situation was more intense throughout the all night session of this committee because the forces for and against an anti-injunction plank were about equally divided. They lined up at three points of attack. First of all the trust plank as originally proposed was considered more dangerous than the anti-injunction plank by those who wanted neither. It contained a declaration that the effectiveness of the Sherman anti-trust law required an amendment extending the power of the federal government over corporations, but providing that such extension of power "will not interfere with the operation of such associations among business men, farmers and wage earners as result in a positive benefit to the public." The objection which finally prevailed against this exemption was that it legalized the boycott.

The first draft of the anti-injunction plank was only less offensive to those who thought that any reference to the subject would be a reflection upon the courts and would restrict the legal rights of employers. The original draft gave color to such a reflection in aiming to prevent "the summary issue of such orders without proper consideration." But the demand of the labor chiefs headed by Mr. Gompers went so much further as "to prohibit the issuance of injunction in cases arising out of labor disputes, when such injunctions would not apply, if no labor disputes existed; and that in no case shall an injunction be issued when

there exists a remedy by the ordinary process of law; and that in a procedure for punishment the party shall, when such contempt was not committed in the actual presence of the court, be entitled to a trial by jury."

In the tug of war over this contention Greek met Greek, when Mr. Van Cleve and Mr. Emory of the Manufacturers' Association joined issue with Mr. Gompers. When the latter warned the committee; "If you destroy us by not limiting the power of injunction in labor disputes our expression of discontent will take some other form or shape and you will have to deal with that", the manufacturers reminded the committee of the previous failures of labor to accomplish results on election day and demanded that the committee should look at the question without fear.

Just when the balance was being struck, with twenty-eight against the plank, twenty-four favoring it, then came the long distance messages from the president and from the winning candidate. Mr. Roosevelt wired "We ought no more to yield to the extremists of the Manufacturers' Association than to the extremists of the labor party. To fail to remedy real grievance is to play into the hands of the socialists and violent extremists of all kinds. I hope the injunction plank will be put in." Mr. Taft added "We can fight if we are right. It is imperative that such a plank go in the platform." Then the attorney-general of Ohio, who drew the first plank, tried his hand again. As a compromise he advised the combination of a suggestion, said to have been made by Nicholas Murray Butler, together with a phrase or two written by Joseph H. Choate, and the formulation of both by delegate Ballinger from the state of Washington. This won by a vote of thirty-five to sixteen in the committee and ended the controversy. While pledging the party "to uphold at all times the authority and integrity of the courts" and insisting "that their powers to enforce their process and to protect life, liberty and property shall be preserved inviolate," it declares that "the procedure in the federal courts in respect to the issuance of the writ of injunction

should be more accurately defined by statute, and that no injunction or temporary restraining order should be issued without notice, except irreparable injury would result from delay, in which case a speedy hearing thereafter should be granted."

Between this compromise and the uncompromising plank demanded by Mr. Gompers the convention itself was subsequently given the chance to choose by the presentation of the latter as one of the minority planks offered by Wisconsin's delegate who served on the resolutions' committee. But the party discipline carried the whole platform as presented in the majority report, without discussion from the floor.

While safeguarding the courts from any detraction this "court procedure" plank is more specific than the original draft in demanding more accurate statute definition of the rules of injunction procedure, due notice, and speedy hearing. It does not appear however to satisfy the labor sentiment. The leaders reserve their opinion, pending their action upon the advice which was freely given from the floor to every suggestion which seemed radical to "take it to Denver."

The recognition of the political necessity of industrial legislation in the platform is marked by thrice repeated reference to the enactments secured by the present administration, providing for employers' liability, safety appliances and special protection for engineers and firemen, reduced hours for trainmen and railway telegraphers, compensation for injured government employes, the eight hour day on public works, the child labor statute of the District of Columbia, investigation into the condition of working women and children and the inquiry into mining disasters. Creditable as this showing is recognized to be by the labor press, the additional planks proposed by the Federation of Labor officials included, besides the anti-injunction restriction, the following demands: for an extension of the eight hour law to all in government work whether employed by contractors or directly by the government itself, the exemption of wage earners' organiza-

tions, and those of agriculturalists and horticulturalists from proceedings against them as "combinations in restraint of trade"; a general employers' liability act, woman's suffrage, the creation of a department of labor, separate from any existing department with a secretary having a seat in the cabinet; a federal bureau of mines and mining, preferably under the department of labor, to investigate the causes of mine disasters; and for the establishment of postal savings banks. Of these, two or three were partly included in the list of administration achievements, and the plank for a postal savings bank was so bitterly contested that it carried the resolutions committee only by a single vote.

The greatest surprise of the whole convention was the popular ovation given to the delivery of the Wisconsin "message." Against great opposition a minority report from the resolutions' committee had been presented by the Wisconsin delegate who was the only one to sign it. Plank by plank it had been crushed by the overwhelming vote of the delegations on roll call against the physical valuation of railroads, publicity of campaign contributions, the election of United States senators by direct vote of the people, the prohibition of advancing railway rates until after the Interstate Commerce Commission has had opportunity to judge of its justice, and the labor version of the anti-injunction plank. They, one and all, will be "taken to Denver," as advised not only by calls from the floor but by the vote of the house. Then at the end of an all day session after the delegates and their 12,000 auditors had been in continuous session for six hot hours, with no intermission for lunch, "Wisconsin" was reached in the roll call of the states. At the call there mounted the platform to nominate its favorite son a stalwart young lawyer who had led in his university athletics. He sympathetically apologized for speaking at all and asked only "a decent chance." The tired crowd which had called time on nearly every speaker, cried "Go on" to this man with a message. Whatever may have been thought of the validity, or the practicability of his claims for the policy

of his state and of its representative in the United States Senate, no one in that vast audience failed to realize that here was a man possessed with a purpose, who was kindled into white heat by the consciousness of a live issue with real things. His spirit was moved and created a stir in the weary throng. His words burned their way through reluctant ears to responsive hearts. His plea was for his party's recognition as the paramount problem of "the equitable assimilation and distribution of the wealth now being normally created." "The problem is a new problem", he cried. "In the wonderful change that has been wrought we have leaped from the field of economic competition to the field of corporate monopoly and government regulation. The responsibility upon you today is overwhelming." And as by turns he criticised, praised, warned and implored, the elements in the crowd began to break loose. "We can only name our man, what will you do with the message?" The delegates, excepting those from his own state, remained silent and apparently unmoved, as they did when the crowd cheered President Roosevelt for nearly an hour. But when he and his able seconder ceased, the galleries, platform and floor went wild. No such demonstration greeted anyone or anything. It did not ebb and flow as did the long and genuine enthusiasm at the mention of the name of Roosevelt. It lasted within two or three minutes as long as the applause led by the delegate which greeted the nomination of Taft. Allowing for all the "rooting" by University students, the applause and cheers, which were astoundingly sustained for twenty-three minutes, were spontaneous, contagious even bewildering in their unexpectedness and enthusiasm. The radicalism of the party found vent for the first and last time. And yet, he who had aroused it, protested: "You call us radicals, my reply is No. No man can point to a single dollar of personal or property rights which has been unjustly invaded."

But now the country will wait to see how much of what was rejected at Chicago will be taken at Denver.



A STOGY PACKING ROOM.¹
Stools for the work, not for the girls.

The Stogy Industry in Pittsburgh

Elizabeth Beardsley Butler

This is the first of a series of four studies of women's trades in the Pittsburgh District, which will appear in the summer magazine numbers of **CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS**. They are part of the study Miss Butler has made of trades employing women, as a member of the staff of the Pittsburgh Survey of Charities Publication Committee. The other three numbers of the series will be on Laundries, Food Production and Metal Trades

The workmen's demand for cheap luxuries is the explanation of the stogy industry. The "smoke"—that companionable dissipation which has become to the business man not only a source of complacent enjoyment, but a symbol of fellowship, of social intercourse, of the good things in the leisure hours of life. Little by little, as the leisure hours are lessened in the descending scale, the symbol has been stripped of its significance. To the clerk it may still mean fellowship, but to the workman from mine or mill it is a physical satisfaction void of all other aroma save that which inheres in the brown leaves themselves. Still earlier in this process of materialization comes the worker in the little tenement shop, the man to whom tobacco is a thing to be

used rarely, being primarily an object of barter and sale.

Wheeling, where the stogy industry started, and Pittsburgh where it shortly took root under the name of tobies are recognized as the two centers of the stogy industry which has spread through many of the towns of West Virginia, Western Pennsylvania and Ohio. The original stogy, or toby—a long, loosely rolled cigar, made only of crumpled filler leaf and the smooth fine wrapper, the binder leaf being left out—forms only a comparatively small proportion of the output. The omission of the binder lessened the cost both in time and material and made it possible to sell the best stogy for half to a third the price of the cheapest cigar. Since then changes in the trade have blurred the line of difference.

¹ See page 436.

One sees many undoubted stogies, but side by side with them are short filler "mold stogies" which are indistinguishable from cigars in size or shape. The name has taken hold of the district. The price is still well within the possibilities of men who want a cheap smoke, and through this section of the middle West it is the stogy trade which supplies them.

First impressions of the industry as it stands to-day are full of a sense of complexity and varied development. There are the skilled craftsmen, makers of hand stogies, some of them working systematically in large factories, others in their little shops in the tenement districts, using a room or two for drying the tobacco, making and packing the stock, sometimes summoning the aid of wives and children for the preliminary process of stripping, sometimes exploiting a newly arrived compatriot until he learns wisdom and gets a shop of his own. There are the women workers, some of them craftsmen too, but most of them employed at subdivisions of the trade such as rolling or bunching by hand or by machine. They outnumber the men nearly three to one, although less than one forty-sixth of them are employed at work demanding a high degree of skill. Factories, sweatshops, home workshops, in part at cross purposes, in part competing, in part developing the industry along different lines, these are the objects of our immediate interest both as avenues of employment for more women than any other one factory trade in Pittsburgh and as illustrations, full of unexplored picturesqueness, of varying industrial tendencies which are found in more than one American city.

There are within the limits of Pittsburgh and Allegheny 32 stogy factories and 203 sweatshops, making a total of 235 work places. The sweatshops employ 400 women and 453 men. The factories employ 2,211 women and 463 men. The total workers in the trade are 3,527, 916 men and 2,611 women.

Take one of the large factories and follow step by step the process of stogy making. First comes the drying room on the third floor, where little bunches of

the rich brown leaves are spread out to mellow and grow soft and workable. They are "air dried" for the finest work. This takes a month or two, sometimes a year for work of the best grade, sometimes when there is haste, not more than a few days, but in any case the method of natural drying without heat produces leaf more responsive to the touch of the shaper.

In another room close by, tobacco is dried by heat, the windows are closed and a stove keeps the room at high temperature. Fine dust from the brittle leaves sifts through the air, and the leaves themselves are as dusty and burnt as if they were only distantly akin to the mellow things in the adjoining room. This heat dried tobacco is for mold stogies. It is shaped artificially and can be used when so dry that handwork upon it would be impossible. The process is quicker. Time and space are both saved where mold stogies are made and air drying is unnecessary. The cost to the consumer is reduced by one-half.

Both of the drying rooms are tended by men, old men, worn out at their trade, but still with the feel of tobacco in their hand. In contrast, the basement, where is the second step in the making, is full of women. These are the strippers. One sees a roomful, perhaps a hundred in number; each woman sits low down in her little stall, a piece of rough board to lean against, and her lap full of tobacco, a scale and a low, rounded stand close beside. Light from the windows hardly reaches all parts of the great square room, but the work is so purely mechanical that light is almost unnecessary. The stem of filler tobacco is pulled out, the leaf is thrown into the scales and tied up pound by pound. The wrapper leaf, and sometimes the binder, is wet and smoothed out over the rounded stand. Care must be taken to cut the stem without tearing the rest of the leaf, but aside from this the work presents no difficulty. It is so far mechanical that strippers are different in type from the other women in the factory. Many of them are women, seasoned, mature, coming late in life into



TOBACCO STRIPPING.

Each girl has her little stall and scales in front of her to weigh each pound after the stems are out.

a trade which they have had no time to learn. There is a peasant look about their faces, a something near the soil and to the growing of dark leaves out of doors. Some of them are young girls, a little stupid, a little inefficient, here and there with a defect of sight, here and there with a slightly deformed body, nearly always in some respect physically below the standard strength that keeps pace with a machine. Some of the strippers belong to yet a different group. They are wrecks of the trade. Once they worked upstairs bunching or at the suction tables, keeping the pace year after year. Others who had started with them married. They kept on until the day when their pace began to fall and their output to diminish, until at length they dropped back among the older untrained women and the young girls whose physique is below par, and the Polish girls

whom race prejudice bars out of every room but this.

Just above the strippers are the hand stogy makers. All of them are men, craftsmen. They sit opposite one another at long tables which run the length of the room, and at the far end there is scarcely light to see, but they work without gas nevertheless. There is need for skill in the close cutting of the leaf, in choice of exactly the right amount of long filler, in rolling, molding and finally loosely curling the head. The best stock is used for this. The workmen here are the most important. They have had an apprenticeship of at least a year, and they have learned a craft which still holds a strong position in spite of encroachments of cheaper and more mechanical methods of manufacture.

Team work among women in the making of mold stogies is the rival of hand-

work. In this factory both rolling and bunching are done with the help of a machine. The buncher stands with her foot on the treadle, puts on the machine her handful of scrap filler and her bit of binder leaf, presses the treadle; the canvas rolls wind about the leaf and release it making a bunch. This is placed in a long wooden board with cigar shaped transverse grooves, six to eight inches long, and two boards together are put under a press until the bunches are molded into shape. Some of the rollers work by hand, cutting the wrapper and shaping it around the bunch, finishing either with curl or paste head. Each girl has her little cutting board, her knife, and her clipper—to cut the end. These are her stock in trade which she carries with her from place to place. There is more demand upon her for training of the eye and hand than upon her neighbors at the suction table, who also rank as rollers but who have scarcely any responsibility left. They spread the leaf over a little metal stand which is so arranged that the leaf is blown out and held in place by suction. The girl cuts it after the guide line on the metal block, always the same shape and size, then rolls it and puts it into the box beside her. There are perhaps three times as many rollers as there are bunchers, but all of them work with a degree of intensity which is the joint result of a piece rate and untired youth. These girls are young, seventeen, eighteen, sometimes twenty, but few older. They have worked at their trade for four or five years, and will perhaps for another year or so; but it is only a temporary thing, not hard to learn, and they can make as much here as anywhere. Many of them are Jewish. They would rather be where it is quiet and where there is no heavy machinery to tend than in some other shop where actual muscular effort is more in demand. Nervous energy they expend freely and strength of the hand and eye.

This is true too of the packers. Their tables are ranged in front of the windows, stools beside them, but here is an illustration of a piece of furniture diverted from its original use, for the stools no longer hold the girls. Instead, on

each is a box of stogies, from which the packer rapidly sorts out light, medium and dark into piles in front of her. Some of them she packs on end, a hundred at a time, into round tins, others are packed in square boxes in rows of ten. By the help of a sloping board, she slips one row after another into place, cuts short the time of shrinkage by vigorously squeezing them together under a press, nails down the cover and ties,—all this with a sureness of sight which discriminates unhesitatingly between different colors and a quickness of hand which for the moment one cannot follow. The bander across the room takes some of the boxes apart, unpacks and pastes bands on the stogies, row by row. Then she repacks them just as they were before and again nails and ties. High speed is in the atmosphere. There is no stopping to rest or think. One knows that the girls must be working by the thousand. They are Americans most of them, although there is a Jewish girl here and there, but usually it is the Americans who stand the pace best and preference is given to them.

In every factory and in every sweatshop the same branches of trade are duplicated in one way or another. There are strippers, bunchers and rollers, hand stogy makers and packers. It remains to see how the factories and sweatshops group themselves, where they are found and how constructed, what wages and hours of work they offer, and how they have been influenced by the unions, the trust, and the labor laws of the state. A word must be said, too, about the displacement of men by women, and of hand work by machine work, and about the physical effects of the trade as it now is compared with the possible physical effects under a somewhat different method of factory construction.

Factories and sweatshops are scattered widely as the limits of the city allow, but in some districts there are aggregations of numbers of shops, partly as the result of nationality groupings, and partly on lines of business convenience.¹ In num-

¹ The distinction made in this study between factory and sweatshop is based solely on the uses to which the building is put. Where stogies are made in a building otherwise used for business purposes, the place is called a factory, as distinguished from a sweatshop which occupies part of a dwelling house.



STOGY FACTORY.

The best of the hill sweatshops. Windows are closed, and tobacco drying on racks fills the air with dust and the odor of nicotine.

bers the advantage is with "the hill."¹ In this part of the city where the bulk of the immigrant Jewish population lives there are nine factories and 124 sweatshops, which employ nearly a third of the workers in the trade. They are Austrian and Russian, sometimes German Jews. The only gentiles are the handful of Italians who make stogies as it is done "in Napoli." The Italians and the majority of the Jewish men are foreign born, but many of the women have been born in this country of foreign parents. The newcomer gravitates naturally to the shop of a friend, and the girl, whose life after all is bounded by the circle of a few streets, is not likely to go to some unknown downtown factory when she can find employment for such hours as she likes in the little workroom next door.

The hill factory is a small place not over two stories high; with the exception of one plant owned by the trust and an independent factory of some size, there are no pretensions to large output or to an extensive business. Some of

them are old buildings on an L-plan, adapted and readapted for their present uses, and reeking with the disabilities of the unfit. Others are trim little brick structures, of recent erection, small enough to be well lighted, and comparatively well aired. At best they are unimportant competitors of the large concerns, although more sharply pushed, in that to some extent they bid for a wider market, than their neighbors of the tenement shops whose entire commercial life may be included between the leaf wholesaler's store across the way, and the cigar seller's on the corner.

The small factories on the hill deal to a large extent in mold stogies. These are cheaper to manufacture and equally sure of sale. It is in the hill sweat shops that one finds most of the hand stogy makers. The types are as various as the prosperity of the owners. Simplest of all, perhaps the primitive cell of the organization of stogy manufacture, is the workbench in the kitchen. There I saw Joseph Lebovitz not many years away from Russia, but taken in hand by his neighbors and trained already to be a stogy maker. He was rather thin, but still brown of face and tall, and with the help of his wife,

¹ This general name is given to the old residence district on high ground up-stream above the point at the meeting of the two rivers where the main business district of Pittsburgh is located. The hill district is now one of the most congested portions of the city and is largely tenanted by Jewish immigrants.

was earning enough at stogies to pay the rent of two rooms on the first floor. The bench and the bag of tobacco were close to the one window, and a little farther away stood the cradle of the new baby rocked between times by the little Russian mother in her moments spared from the joint occupations of housekeeping and stripping tobacco for her husband. Lebovitz is under bond, of course, to the revenue office. Now and then he has to go down to the great stone building and buy stamps for his boxes of stock, but for the rest the hill is large enough to supply all his needs. There is a box factory a few squares away; in the very next house is the man who sells leaf to half the small shops on the hill. Then the cigar seller nearby deals with his neighbors in preference to the big factories that are so independent in their demand that a large amount be bought.

In this district there are twenty of these home shops, where no outside hands are employed. Sometimes the

little place has been continued for years in the same way until it has absorbed children as well as parents, and expanded without breaking the family tie. I caught a glimpse of one such group of workers through the foot high window of a cellar, and went in to find the utmost economy of space and lack of air combined with the marvelous neatness expressive of the righteous German soul. The dark cellarway was full of cases of stock, but there assuredly was a passage if one had the ingenuity to find it. Inside the small cellar of a small tenement there were two rooms, perhaps eight by eight, with a seven foot ceiling. Here Fritz Rosenberg, a patriarchal gray bearded German worked with his wife and daughter. Their table was set up against a wall, underneath the tight closed wire screened window. A foot below the ceiling hung a wide wooden rack. Finished stogies were drying here, and on the quite useless sofa at the rear of the room tobacco leaves were heaped high. Although I



A POPLAR ALLEY FAMILY AT WORK.

Work on these long Italian stogies is done in one room.



STOGY FACTORY FRONTING ON AN ALLEY.

All the workers, eleven in number, are crowded into one room. Two children come after school to strip. One who ran out is nine; and the little girl in the background is eleven years old.

could not help wondering how such a place could ever be cleaned, the results of care were evidenced in the clean floor and benches. But with the workroom so closed in, mere freedom from scrap cannot make it a fit living place.

In some cases a workshop is operated in connection with a retail store but more often it is independent. The first outsider to be brought in as trade expands is another man to help, a girl to strip, or

a small child after school. The girl will sometimes be shared by several shops. If more workers are added, the point of divergence comes just here. Sometimes there will be three or four men making only hand stogies, with one or two girls to strip for them. More often, however, it happens that as the shop grows its policy changes, girls and cheaper men being taken on to work at molds. We might find this transformed workshop

in a half cellar, reached through an alleyway from the rear, or we might find it under a low sloping roof on the third floor, but more often than not if we walked boldly through the family parlor to the dark staircase in the middle of the tenement, we should find somewhere at the top the odor of tobacco leaves. We should have to go upstairs in total darkness, for the doors at either side are closed, but behind one of them would be our workshop. Here the atmosphere is businesslike; there is no furniture that has not its use for the manufacture of stogies. The rollers have their benches against the two front windows and the bunchers work at the dark side of the room; ceiling-high the round white boxes of stogies are piled against the walls, and in the corner which no one happens to be using, there are little heaps of tobacco spread out to dry. Three of the rollers are girls of the strong peasant type of immigrant Jewess whose mother worked in the fields in Austria. The other roller and two of the three bunchers are men, but both strippers are women. They work in a little corner of the cellar next to the bales of tobacco and the case of stems, in a room which cannot be heated in winter or dried in summer. Unless the heat is unbearable windows are not opened, because the Pittsburgh climate is too variable to be surely right for tobacco. In general, the work places on the hill are characterized by a lack of cleanliness, by overcrowding (as low as 150 cubic feet of air space to a person in some shops), by an absence of ventilation and of sanitary accommodations. Dirt and scrap are heaped under the tables. In two-fifths¹ of the cases tobacco is drying in the room, sometimes on the floor, sometimes at the side or overhead,—a potent cause of ill health to the workers from the nicotine in the atmosphere.

In other parts of the city, the type of sweatshop is much the same. Its genesis has been along the same lines, although sometimes one finds that the proprietor is an ex-resident of the hill district who has moved away in pursuit of space and light and air. Most of

the large factories are near the business center of the city, but one finds groups of tenement shops in the East End in some straggling unpainted Italian street, or on the south side with its colonies of Slavic and Celtic people. There are three down town and here and there on the north side a total of thirty. Many of the latter are German shops, but throughout the Jewish stock is noticeable. One point worth noting is that in sixty-nine shops out of the hill district, forty-three, or over three-fifths, are operated in connection with retail stores. There is a sense of permanence, an atmosphere of solidity about a double business of this sort which seems to indicate a deliberate, purposeful choice of occupation rather than the chance employment, the eager learning of the nearest thing at hand which one feels in the case of the Jewish immigrants in the congested district. Here too, the standard of cleanliness and of sanitation is higher.

It has been necessary to describe general conditions of work in the stogy industry before discussing the specific points by which men and women are differently affected. At first sight wages would seem to come under general conditions. "Equal pay for equal work" is the rule in factories and tenement shops alike. Rates of pay are as follows:

	Hill District.	North and South Side.
<i>Strippers:</i>		
Filler	.01½ per lb.	.01½ per lb.
Binder,	.02 "	.02-.03 "
Wrapper,	.04 "	.05 "
<i>Mold Stogy:</i>		
Makers:		
Rollers,		
Paste,	.11 a 100	.12 a 100
Curl,	.12 "	.13 "
<i>Bunchers:</i>		
Hand,	.08 "	.08 "
Machine,	.03 "	.05 "
<i>Hand Stogy:</i>		
Makers:	2.00 a 1000	3.00-3.50 a 1000

The rate of pay, of course, tells nothing about actual earnings. Trade varies from time to time, and stock is not given out in the same quantities. There are always the natural differences of speed among the workers, but there is, besides, much variation in the stock. A leaf that is old or weak in fiber is likely to

break in handling and takes two or three times as long to strip as Kentuck, heavy and tough as tobaccos go. In exactly the same way the difficulty of work for the roller or buncher is increased. To cut without waste when the stock is poor keeps down speed and output of even the best workers, and for the less efficient workers it is disastrous. Sometimes it is a matter of chance that the roller has a "run of poor stock." Sometimes it is a deliberate means of cheapening cost. This happens more often in the large factories than in the small shops, because in the former case scrap can be used at a profit, and in the latter the effort is to keep a few customers for goods of even quality rather than to make a bid for a wide trade. Yet this is a generalization with many exceptions.

Where hours are irregular, the time element enters, with natural differences of speed and with differences in quality of stock, to affect the amount earned. Perhaps here better than elsewhere mention may be made of some of the methods of stimulating output in the larger factories. There are eight factories which employ a hundred hands or more. In each of them as well as in some of the smaller plants which approach them in size, there are speed requirements. One factory, for instance, pays only nine cents a hundred in case a roller turns out less than 6,000 stogies a week, although there is not a sweatshop which falls below the eleven cent rate. In other cases, emphasis is placed on close cutting as well as on speed. The following regulation is posted on a workroom door:

PUMP HANDLES (CIGARS).

- All rollers getting an average of below 275 a lb. will receive 12 cents a 100.
- All rollers getting an average of 275 or better will receive 13 cents a 100.
- All rollers getting an average of over 325 will receive 25 cents additional to their week's pay.

LITTLE HAVANA SPECIALS.

- All rollers getting an average of below 325 a lb., will receive 12 cents a 100.
- All rollers getting an average of 325 or better will receive 13 cents a hundred.
- All rollers getting an average of over 375 will receive 25 cents additional to their week's pay.

¹ This factory is in the north side where thirteen cents a hundred is the standard rate.

It is true that without requirement as to the amount to be cut from a pound, many of the girls might become careless and waste an unnecessary amount of leaf. It is also true that such a requirement greatly increases the worker's expenditure of time and nervous energy. She is pulled in two directions, urged on the one hand to the necessity of speed if she is to have a good sum at the end of the week and keep her place in the factory, and urged on the other hand to slacken her pace on each stogy in order to increase her output per pound. The sliding scale is fixed to raise a notch higher the speed of workers all along the line. In four of the factories, where the standard speed has been pushed several notches ahead, the scale is as follows:

300 stogies from a pound	10 cents per 100
325 " " "	11 " "
350 " " "	12 " "
375 " " "	13 " "
400 " " "	13½-14 "

A higher pace can scarcely be reached than that obtained by these four, and they are no less rigid in their requirements as to the total number of stogies made each day than as to the total number cut from each pound. Each girl is under a double tension to keep her at maximum speed.

In one case the forewoman said to me, "Every one of my girls makes 1,400 stogies a day." I asked her how that was possible, and she replied, "If she does not make 1,400 a day, she is discharged."

The method of obtaining speed by means of a premium is attempted in some cases. I have been told that one factory which employs 300 girls pays a bi-weekly premium of fifty cents in four departments (long filler rolling and bunching, and scrap rolling and bunching), to the two girls in each department who make the most stogies per pound from the tobacco weighed out to them during that time. The girls whose speed and number of stogies per pound has come nearest to that of the premium girls are paid the regular rate, but the blow falls on those at the foot of the list. By an ingenious, but not wholly clear process of reasoning, they are fined thirty to thirty-five cents a pound for their scrap, although this is more than the wrapper

tobacco costs retail, and the scrap is by no means a total loss to the management.

With this in mind, that in the larger factories the speed of the workers is stimulated to a high pitch, and that in the tenement shops as a rule there is a gentler atmosphere of taking things as they come and working overtime if one wishes; allowing for differences of tension, of stock, and of natural ability, we may consider for a moment what the actual output in the several departments is. Among strippers one finds every variation from the curly haired little boy of five who could strip *zwölf händel* a

Monday,	79 lbs.	
Tuesday,	24 "	
Wednesday,	67 "	
Thursday,	56 "	
Friday,	58 "	
Saturday,	89½ "	(Average: 62½ lbs. daily.)

The general average of filler strippers is forty to sixty pounds. Binder strippers turn out thirty to fifty, and wrapper strippers have an average of not more than twenty pounds a day (eighty cents to one dollar). In the following schedule of an unusually rapid worker the gaps and variations show how statements of a high output must be discounted. On



A CELLAR WORKROOM FOR THREE COLORED STRIPPERS.

It has two openings, a cellar way on the street level and a small, tightly fastened window at the other side.

day, and the old grandmother who was sure of her twenty-eight pounds to the expert whose average number of pounds at filler work is between sixty and seventy. Tobacco is weighed after the stems are out, and filler is stripped with the least care because it is crumpled and rolled inside the other leaves. The payroll for a normal week gives the following output for one of the best filler strippers on the hill:

days that are blank Tessa was sent home because there was no work and several times she had to battle with poor stock, although on a good day she would reach the rare maximum of thirty-four pounds.

Week of Aug. 30, '07. Week of Sept. 11, '07.

Mon.,	33 lbs.	Mon.,	32 lbs.
Tues.,	33 "	Tues.,	25 "
Wed.,	—	Wed.,	—
Thurs.,	31 "	Thurs.,	27 "
Fri.,	31 "	Fri.,	33 "
Sat.,	12 "	Sat.,	—

Week of Sept. 17, '07. Week of Sept. 21, '07.

Mon.,	19 lbs.	Mon.,	6 lbs.
Tues.,	20 "	Tues.,	29 "
Wed.,	31 "	Wed.,	13 "
Thurs.,	34 "	Thurs.,	—
Fri.,	—	Fri.,	23 "
Sat.,	—	Sat.,	23 "

From these four weeks we get a daily average of eighteen pounds or (at the rate of five cents per pound) ninety cents. An old stogy maker who has worked with several generations of girl strippers, says that not one of them can make over five dollars a week, and that a fair estimate counting in seasons of dull trade and of over time, would be from sixty to eighty cents a day.

Stripping is almost entirely in the hands of women. Of the 523 strippers, only eighteen are men. Of these eight-

een, four are colored, two are feeble-minded, three are boys; the rest are too old to be trusted with any other work. In the smaller shops discrimination in workroom accommodations is invariably made against the strippers. Whenever a cellar is used, they work in the cellar. When the upper part of the house is used, they work at the staircase landing or at the entrance of the dark room where tobacco is stored. They are sometimes Negroes, sometimes Slavs, sometimes Jews of a lower grade than the molders of the leaf, and they are quite willing to take such places as are provided for them. Recently I went into a cellar opposite one of the hill factories. Two colored women and one colored man were stripping there in a room whose ceiling



DAMP, COLD ROOM IN CELLAR OF A FRAME HOUSE ON VINE STREET
Three women and one man stripping tobacco. There is no means of heating the room.
Light comes only from a small, dark window at one side. There is no ventilation.

was not over seven feet high, and whose only source of air was a narrow door leading by a flight of steps up to the street. The tiny slit of a window at the far end was close barred, and two-thirds of the air space in the room was taken up by bales of tobacco and cases of stripped stock. Pools of muddy water stood on the earth floor, and the air was foul beyond endurance.

Nearby was another cellar workroom where three Polish girls of low grade and a man who was feeble-minded worked in the underground dampness. From the closed door steps led up to the yard. The room was not over eight feet square, and on dark days the flaring gas jet helped to exhaust the oxygen. Except by the gas jet there was no way of heating the place in winter or drying the damp floor and wall in summer. And such conditions are not exceptional. It must be remembered that these are the work places of the least vigorous—of the children, the old women, the girls who are broken down with illness and who have lost their speed and an inert majority of unskilled women, too ambitionless to learn something that pays better, too spiritless to combat exploitation.

Earlier in this paper, I have spoken of one kind of machine bunch making. Several kinds are found in Pittsburgh, among others a large machine in one of the trust factories, which with good stock, turns out 8,400 bunches a day. Two girls operate this, one of them feeding in the filler and the other the binder, each being paid 17½ cents a thousand, or about \$1.40 a day. In the tenement shops, there are found the old style foot machines for short filler

work. The funnel is filled with scrap; the operator presses the treadle, and in so doing opens the funnel just enough to let a handful of scrap fall on the leaf and be wound about by it, while incidentally a cloud of dust flies out into the room. From three to five thousand bunches a day can be turned out here with a pay of three, sometimes five, cents a hundred.

Hand bunch makers at eight cents, sometimes ten, a hundred, are used for long filler work in the small shops and in many factories. With high endurance and prolonged working hours, some men can earn as much as two dollars a day. This possibility lies back of the fact that we find twice as many men bunching as rolling. Yet the number of women in both branches of the trade is greater. I know of no woman, however, who has reached the record of 2,000 a day, the output of one man on the hill. A worker of moderate ability does not turn out over 1,400—with a pay of \$1 to \$1.20.

After rollers of mold stogies have learned their trade,¹ there is wide variation of output, due sometimes to high speeding one day with exhaustion the next, or to differences of stock and of market demand. I have heard of one woman who made 2,000 a day, but she was unique in the experience of the boss who knew her. The consensus of opinion seems to be that 1,000 is a good output for an experienced roller, and the average of the schedules at the bottom of this page (the week's work of six experts), is a little less than 950.

Judging by these schedules an experienced hand could expect to earn \$1 to \$1.30 a day. There are some

¹ An initial expense of \$1.35 for tools.

Monday	800
Tuesday	400
Wednesday	1000
Thursday	1000
Friday	1000
Saturday	1200

Monday	1400
Tuesday	1400
Wednesday	1400
Thursday	1500
Friday	1500
Saturday	—

Monday	1300
Tuesday	1400
Wednesday	1500
Thursday	600
Friday	1000
Saturday	1600

Monday	1300
Tuesday	1400
Wednesday	1300
Thursday	1100
Friday	—
Saturday	—

Monday	600
Tuesday	600
Wednesday	1100
Thursday	1000
Friday	1000
Saturday	300

Monday	400
Tuesday	1200
Wednesday	1700
Thursday	500
Friday	—
Saturday	—

cases where with additional night work the girl's total income is brought up to \$10 or more a week.

Trained packers at piece rates, 7 cents to 50 cents a 1,000, turn out at the lowest rate not less than 14,000 (98 cents) a day. Banding is paid at the rate of 25 cents a 1,000. There are so many different styles of packing stogies, that there is little opportunity to acquire speed with accuracy in a single line, and week work has often been found more satisfactory. Seven-tenths of the 209 girl packers earn week wages of \$3 to \$10, the large majority being paid \$4 to \$6 for their 56 to 60 hours' work.

The hand stogy makers, with whom the trade started, are paid best, on the hill at the rate of \$2 a 1,000, and on the South Side where the union influence still persists, at the rate of \$3 to \$3.50, and in a very few shops \$3.75. Italian women are employed in one factory to make stogies after the Italian fashion, smearing the board with paste and carelessly rolling the leaf without finishing either end. They are paid \$1.75 a 1,000, and often do not make over 500 a day.¹ The rest of the women hand stogy makers are found in small shops, working with their husbands in most cases, and altogether counting factory and home workers, there are not more than 56 of them as against 392 men.

Before speaking more specifically of the displacement of men by women, a word should be said as to the hours of work in the trade. This too is connected with the wage question. In the tenement shops there is a decided tendency toward irregular hours, night work being optional with outside hands, but often a matter of course with the families. Half of the shops which employ outsiders confessedly

work at night. The largest of the hill factories is open until 10 P. M., but no compulsion is exerted to keep the women employes after six. As a rule, the factories have overtime only for the Christmas trade, twenty-two of them having a ten hour day during the year, but with one exception the rest have a working day of seven and a half hours to nine and a half. Overtime is admitted to be a failure. There are comparatively few men in the trade who willingly keep their hands at night during the rush from August until December. For every night worked poorer work is done during the day. This fact has so far won recognition, that in seven of the factories there is no overtime at all; in other cases night work is reduced to two nights a week, or three. Yet since factories are run by orders and since dealers will not order long ahead, there come an inevitable rush and crowding during the fall months, succeeded by utter deadness of trade in January and February. It rarely happens that a factory shuts down in the slack season, but instead the pay-roll is reduced materially by continuous use of bad stock. Sometimes in a week's pay strippers earn \$1, and rollers \$1.50, less than when trade is normal.

This discussion of the more general aspects of the industry brings us to a summing up of the distribution among men and women of the various kinds of work.

Are the women craftsmen or machine operators?

Are they competing with men for the same work at the same pay or for different work at lesser pay?

Perhaps a graphic statement of the present distribution will give the best basis for an answer to these questions.

The figures show that stripping, the most mechanical and poorly paid branch of the trade, is almost exclu-



¹ The output of an experienced hand stogy maker at dry rolling is 1,000 a day.

	Hand Stogies.	Rollers.	Bunchers (hand.)	Bunchers (machine.)	Drying Room.	Strip- ping.	Packing.
<i>Sweatshops:</i>							
Men	224	88	118	5	5	13	—
Women	44	147	56	1	—	148	4
<i>Factories:</i>							
Men	168	77	190	4	18	5	1
Women	12	1185	289	161	2 ¹	357	205
<i>Total distribution:</i>							
Men	392	165	308	9	23	18	1
Women	56	1332	345	162	2 ¹	505	209

sively in the hands of women. In team work by hand or by machine, women outnumber men nearly four to one,² whereas there is only one of them among seven hand stogy makers. So far as numbers go, it is clear that the women in the stogy industry are not craftsmen.³ Overwhelmingly they are machine operators or engaged in preparation work.

We have found that wage rates are general, not special according to sex. Where men and women enter the shop together to do the same work, they receive the same pay, and the employment of one or the other is largely a matter of chance. The real basis of competition is in the displacement of higher skill by lesser skill, of hand work by machine work, of men hand stogy makers by women mold stogy makers, doing cheaper work for lower

wages in less time. It is in rolling and bunching that the numbers of women loom large. Men who do rolling and bunching are comparatively few, because as laborers they can earn more elsewhere after they have learned the ways of the country and found themselves. There are no trustworthy figures to show whether the group of hand workers has actually, as well as proportionately⁴ diminished, but the point of which we can be certain is that the great increase has come among workers less skilled and in the output of a product which by its very cheapness has a strong hold on the market. The distribution of work does evidently mean a displacement of one group by another.

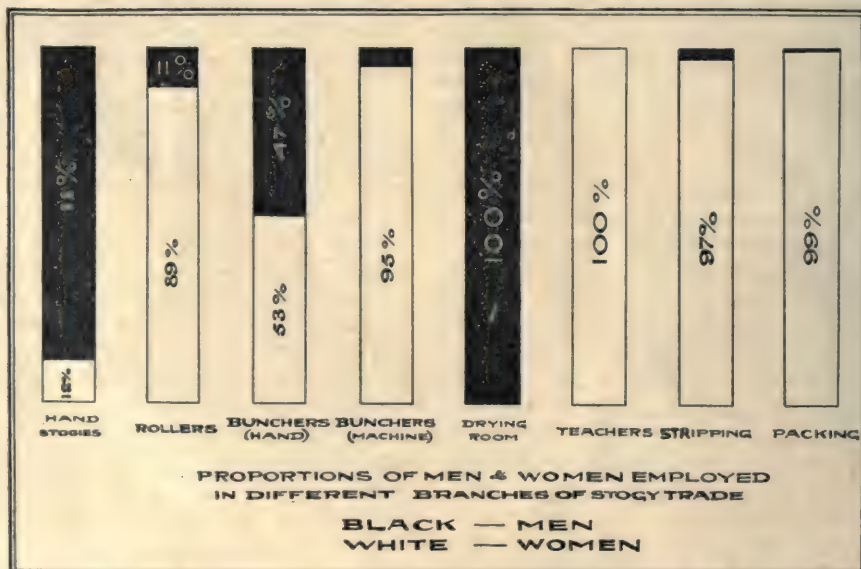
The growth of the trust in Pittsburgh is closely bound up with this change in the character of the industry. Within the last few years, the Union American

¹ Teachers.

² 3.81.

³ 1/46.62 of the total number of women in the trade are engaged at hand stogy work.

⁴ Proportion of hand stogy makers to the total number of workers in the trade 1: 7.87.



Cigar Company has acquired four of the largest factories in the Pittsburgh district, to turn out a cheap grade of mold work, mainly for the western trade. Three of the factories use machines for rolling and bunching, and in one case stripping machines have been installed. The fourth factory where mold work is done without machines employs fifty women and fifty men, but in the other three, all but ten of their 1,025 employes are women. The impetus given to trade in machine-made goods by the trust can hardly be over-estimated. Of course, back of this action is the constant demand on the part of the consumer for a cheapening of selling price and on the part of the investor for a cheapening of the cost of production.

The apprentice system is not found fully developed in the independent factories, although most of the larger plants will take an occasional learner. In the factories of the Union American Cigar Company, however, apprentices are taken as part of a regular system and trained for the work of one department. They are given no opportunity to learn more than a single branch of the work, and their apprenticeship is mainly a speed developing process. For the first week the new girl receives a premium of \$2.50 in addition to what she earns. Each week her premium is reduced by twenty-five cents¹ until the tenth week, when she is supposed to be able "to make her time." It is by no means true that she can acquire high speed in rolling (unless by machine) in so short a time, but merely enough sureness of touch to warrant her being trusted on the various sorts of work. The apprentices are usually young girls, not much over fourteen. They fit in to the pace setting ways of the trust and in a couple of years reach their maximum output.

The only active opponents of trust methods have been the labor unions, but for some reason their history in the Pittsburgh stogy industry has been in large measure characterized by disunion, ineffective action and internal quarrels. Within a year there could be found shops belonging to four different organizations, no one of which controlled an influential portion of the trade. The Industrial

Workers of the World and the Cigar Makers' International Union are no longer represented in Pittsburgh. The National Stogy Makers, an offshoot from the Knights of Labor, have been unable to duplicate here their wonderfully successful work in Wheeling, where their boast is "that there is not a trust factory, and every stogy maker in town has his union card." They control one factory, but the other union shops are under the Knights of Labor. This latter organization has its strongest hold in the south side among some Germans who use the label although they are charged with taking what wages they can get even if the rate is below the regular scale.

At one time a number of the women mold workers were organized, although the allegiance of the hand stogy makers has always been most sought. The women accepted pay below the union scale from one manufacturer. Men from the same shop several times remonstrated with the firm, and then went out on strike to force up the women's pay, but the women would not go. Meanwhile a hostile union came in and organized the shop while the old employees were striking. Since then the enthusiasm of the union for women members has waned, although they have five or six still. By the constitution of the National Stogy Makers women are definitely excluded. Among the Jewish shops every attempt at organization has failed. The rate of pay on the hill is a third less than the South Side rate, but union men have been powerless to break through the barrier of clannishness and suspicion characteristic of this hill group of shifting immigrants.

The third influence, which besides the unions and the trust organization has been brought to bear upon the trade is the state factory law. There are no clauses having especial reference to the industry, but this like others is affected by the general prohibition of excessive hours of work for women and of unsanitary buildings.¹ The twelve hour maximum working day for women has had an undoubted influence on the attitude of the larger factories toward overtime.

¹ Also of child labor. There are thirty to forty children from five to twelve years old stripping tobacco in tenement sweatshops; double the number stripping after school.

¹ In one case fifty cents.

The question of sanitary building construction brings us to a consideration of health. I shall not speak here of points which come under the general factory law, except in so far as they have an added significance in this trade. Overcrowding, poor lighting, and lack of sanitary accommodations, are found in other trades as here. Insufficient ventilation calls for especial comment. The dust of the tobacco leaves and pulverized scrap fills the air with impurities, but fear of the fog and dampness brings down every window. Yet the possibility of artificial ventilation does not seem to be recognized and with few exceptions factories large and small are offenders against health by their lack of pure air. Racks¹ of brown leaves against the wall or overhead, heaps of tobacco drying on the floor, represent an economy of space which is an added danger to the workers. As the leaves mellow the air becomes heavy with nicotine and thick with dust.

Tenement shops are frequently the worst offenders, but they seem to be losing ground. In Wheeling the effective force has been the union. In Pittsburgh it seems to be the trust. Combinations among leaf growers, packers, and manufacturers have doubled the price of leaf within the last year, until the point now reached is so far prohibitive to small dealers that twenty-four have left the trade and more have cut down the number of their employees. Yet with the tenement shops eliminated, the problem of healthy factory construction would be still unsolved. There is no conclusive evidence that disease is caused by the mere working in tobacco, but evidence is abundant that the long hours during which the roller sits at her bench in one position, the tight closed windows, the dust sifting through the air, tend to produce diseases of throat and lungs, in many cases tuberculosis.² It is a matter worth discussion

¹ 101 factories and sweatshops dry tobacco in work-rooms; fifty-three have racks at the side, seventeen have racks overhead and thirty one dry tobacco on the floor.

² Danger is increased by dry sweeping during working hours and often by requiring the girls to clean their own work benches. No brushes are provided and the girls sweep the dust and scrap into each others aprons and faces.

There are few factories in which rollers bite the ends of their stogies instead of cutting them. This is sharply looked after by the management and is negligible in estimating trade dangers.

The danger of infection is increased by the custom of placing work benches opposite one another to save space instead of facing them in the same direction.

whether there might not be specific legal prohibition of drying tobacco in work-rooms, whether requirements as to ventilation might not be made more definite, and whether the minimum amount of air space might not be raised.

Under a discussion of health comes the factory system of pace setting. Serious as the menace of tuberculosis is, one might almost consider more serious the threat to racial vitality from nervous exhaustion of the girl workers. I have spoken of the double tension on the stogy maker who must cut close and at the same time have a high output. "No girl can keep up her pace more than six years," said the manager of one of the large factories. Others think that the girls are tired of working and do not take the same interest, while some say that the nicotine makes them sluggish, but the majority admit that except for girls of the most robust physique, the tension is impossible to maintain. Sarah Cohen, who is a stripper twenty-one years old, is an instance of this. I should have thought her a woman of thirty-five. The first break in her strength came from typhoid four years ago, but she never has been able to regain the speed which she had at sixteen. With overtime rolling, she was able at one time to earn twelve dollars a week, but she dropped behind into the stripping room of an alley sweatshop where she cannot finish in a day over fourteen pounds, at five cents a pound. This means an income of \$4.20 a week. Rose Bernstein, a slight little girl with drooping mouth and sloping shoulders, told me that in three years her output had dropped from 1,000 to 700 stogies a day, and that now she is losing perceptibly. The cost of this nervous loss is not borne by the industry. Most of the girls marry at twenty or twenty-one, just about the time when their speed breaks. The cost is borne by the homes into which they go. This social waste, more serious by far than the destruction of the individual, we have not yet estimated in concrete terms. We know only that in case after case the industry is taking young undeveloped girls, lifting their speed to its highest pitch and wearing them out. We know too, after the gap of a few years, of unfit homes, undervitalized children. It would be

rash to conclude that any one thing is responsible, but we may be sure beyond the possibility of doubt that a trade which so often results in nervous exhaustion is at least a factor in maintaining a body of women who are socially unfit.

To sum up: In the large factories, the emphasis in women's work is on speed rather than on craftsmanship, on a high rate of cheap production, rather than on a moderate rate of superior production. The growth in numbers has come

among team workers and to a large extent among workers at the machine. In the tenement shops, there is less emphasis on speed and more laxity as to hours, but there are counterbalancing disadvantages of frequent night work, congested workrooms and unsanitary as well as unventilated buildings. The brown stogy—that symbol of fellowship, social intercourse, and the good things of the leisure hours of life—has become socially a costly thing to produce. No small share of that social cost is needless waste.



Glasshouses

Cressy L. Wilbur

Chief Statistician, Bureau of the Census

I read with interest the clipping from *The Philistine* published in your issue of May 23 relative to the lack of vital and sanitary statistics in Turkey. It is a good story. I printed it myself some years ago (1898) in the *Michigan Monthly Bulletin of Vital Statistics*, taking it from the *Public Health Journal*. But it seems a little unkind—at least, perhaps, in questionable taste—for us to upbraid the Turk concerning the mote in his eye while we are complacently carrying a very conspicuous beam in our own. Let us see how the comparison runs between his replies and those that might be made for the United States:

Question—What is the death rate in your province [country]?

The Turk answers: In Damascus, it is the will of Allah that all should die. Some die young, and some die old.

The American might answer: No one knows. The federal government has endeavored to find out since 1850. The registration of deaths is entirely dependent upon the enactment and effective enforcement of state laws, or of city ordinances in default of state legislation.

At present only fifteen of the forty-six states have been accepted by the Bureau of the Census as having sufficiently complete registration of deaths to enable them to be included in the registration area. Besides these, returns are received from the District of Columbia (city of Washington) and certain other registration cities in non-registration states, so that altogether just about one-half of the total population of the United States is represented in the annual reports on mortality statistics. The list of states not yet accepted as registration states for deaths was, for the year 1907: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

Question—What is the annual number of births?

The Turk: God alone can say—I do not know and hesitate to inquire.

The American might reply to exactly the same effect in perchance less pious language. He does not know the exact number of births each year for his country as a whole, or for a single state or even a single city therein. And he hesitates—and has been hesitating for over a half-century since the spirit first moved him to attempt the collection of vital statistics—to make inquiry in a way that will bring accurate results. There is no registration area for births as yet. The reason why is explained in the *Mortality Statistics, 1906*, published by the Bureau of the Census. Replies from state and city registration officials representing 45.1 per cent of the total population of the United States may be summed in a few words: Weak laws, imperfectly executed, with the burden of the failure charged to neglect or negligence of physicians, midwives, or parents; almost entire absence of prosecutions for neglect and indisposition or inability to secure the compulsory enforcement of the laws. The report states: "Not a single one of the 72 replies summarized claimed that all births were registered, as all should be under an efficient law. No definite statements were made in 23 reports. In Springfield, Mass., and Youngstown, Ohio, 98 per cent were stated to be registered, with Boston and Lynn, Mass., coming next with 95 per cent; 15 offices reported 85 or 90 per cent; 13 reported 75 or 80 per cent; 5 reported 65 or 70 per cent; 4 reported 55 or 60 per cent; Columbia, S. C., reported 50 per cent; and Baltimore, Md., 45 per cent. In two instances the answer was given as 'no,' two answered as 'not complete,' and two as 'unknown.'"

There is a more hopeful side to the picture, which, however, consists largely of anticipation as yet. Of the fifteen registration states, five have been added since 1900. Laws requiring burial permits—the essential requirement of effective death registration—have been enacted in Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin during the past few years and are now undergoing the test of practical operation. Bills were introduced in the legislatures of Kentucky, Ohio, and

Virginia last winter. Of these only the Ohio bill became a law, it having been signed by Governor Harris on May 5. It is a complete and comprehensive law, which should yield as excellent results as have been obtained under the Pennsylvania law of 1905.

A campaign for the extension of the registration area is now being organized, to begin active operations during the legislative sessions of 1909. The great American Medical Association will take an active part in the work, through its Legislative Council, Bureau of Medical Legislation, and state and county medical societies. The legal profession will aid; see the pamphlet on *Legal Importance of Registration of Births and Deaths*; Report of Special Committee on Vital Statistics to the Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws, a copy of which will be sent by the director of the census upon request.

The American Public Health Association, whose membership embraces the practical sanitary and registration officials of this country, has lately organized a special Section on Vital Statistics and is actively co-operating with the other associations. All are working in harmony and are aided, to the extent of its power, by the Bureau of the Census in conformity to the desire of Congress as expressed in the following resolution:

Whereas the registration of births and deaths at the time of their occurrence furnishes official record information of much value to individuals; and

Whereas the registration of deaths, with information upon certain points, is essential to the progress of medical and sanitary science in preventing and restricting disease and in devising and applying remedial agencies; and

Whereas all of the principal countries of the civilized world recognize the necessity for such registration and enforce the same by general laws; and

Whereas registration in the United States is now confined to a few states, as a whole, and the larger cities, under local laws and ordinances which differ widely in their requirements; and

Whereas it is most important that registration should be conducted under laws that will insure a practical uniformity in the character and amount of information available from the records; and

Whereas the American Public Health Association and the United States Census

Office are now co-operating in an effort to extend the benefits of registration and to promote its efficiency by indicating the essential requirements of legislative enactments designed to secure the proper registration of all deaths and births and the collection of accurate vital statistics, to be presented to the attention of the legislative authorities in non-registration states, with the suggestion that such legislation be adopted: Now, therefore,

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States hereby expresses approval of this movement and requests the favorable consideration and action of the state authorities, to the end that the United States may attain a complete and uniform system of registration.

The primary object is to obtain complete registration of deaths throughout the United States. The great problem is to effect such registration in the South and in the sparsely settled states of the West. It will be more difficult to secure complete registration of births, nevertheless an active interest is being taken in this branch of registration. Several of the New England states should be able to secure complete returns of births. The new Pennsylvania law is being enforced with vigor and physicians and midwives are prosecuted when delinquent. The Michigan law of 1905 should secure practically complete returns. The authorities of New York, Indiana, and other states are endeavoring to promote better registration of births. Especially

hopeful is the recent work in New York city, under which the number of births registered has largely increased in the last few years. A special law "To provide for the better registration of births in the District of Columbia" has lately been enacted by Congress. The time has come for a general awakening upon this subject, and the future should show the United States at last in line with all other civilized nations with respect to the registration of vital statistics.

But back of the law in our country must always stand the intelligent interest and support of the people. All who are interested in better vital statistics and their uses for the common good should unite to promote and extend such interest. I think no extended appeal need be made to the readers of *CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS*, for the absolute necessity of accurate vital statistics to the understanding and promotion of social work is self-evident. I hope that all who appreciate its importance will join with the agencies already at work, and not only help secure the enactment of proper laws, where none now exist, or the improvement of defective laws, but will join in the more difficult and more important task of educating the people to the appreciation of the value of such legislation and the great and increasing practical utility for their own interests of its uniform and impartial enforcement.

Professor Patten on Monopoly and Social Work

Condensed from an article in *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, by the Editor of "Charities and The Commons"

Social workers will find food for thought in an article by Dr. Simon N. Patten in the July number of the *Annals*, entitled *The Political Significance of Recent Economic Theories*. The earlier portion of this article contrasts Professor J. B. Clark's theory of distribution, called by Dr. Patten the productivity theory, and summarized in the statement that cost processes are just prices, with his own price theory which assumes that each share in distribution increases or diminishes, not according to its cost but

according as it becomes a larger or a smaller element in the price of commodities.

Years ago, when Dr. Patten was writing more exclusively than at present on questions of abstract economic theory, he formulated a theory of distribution as follows:

"Of the factors necessary for production, that factor which tends to increase at the slowest rate will reduce the shares of the other factors to their lowest limits,

will have the benefit of all improvements and must bear all permanent burdens."

The idea embodied in this theory is that there are a number of limited claims due to the fact that certain shares are subject to definite laws and that there is a residual claimant that gets what is left because other factors fail to secure it. Under present conditions, this residual claimant is monopoly. The growing share is wages, while the shares that are limited and that tend to fall in amount as society progresses are rent, profits, interest and risk. The growing shares to-day are plainly monopoly and wages.

"Wages at any one moment are fixed like the other limited shares. It is not, as President Walker taught, a residual claimant. And yet it is a growing claimant which secures in the end what the other shares lose. The more productive land is, the lower will be rent; the greater the ingenuity of inventors and industrial managers, the less enduring will be their reward, and the larger the productive power of capital the less will be the rate of interest. This is because the power of substitution cuts down the return of all effective agents. We can make a paradox by saying that land, capital, inventors, and industrial managers will in the end do everything and get nothing, while by the force of the same progress labor in the end will do nothing and get everything. Such a condition is too far off to cause worry or rejoicing, but the forces that press mankind in this direction are ever active and will dominate our tendencies that seem for the moment to prevent its consummation.

"Keeping in mind the increasing mobility of laborers and the growing socialization of industrial groups, it is evident that wages will steadily rise and that a rising standard of life will permanently keep intact the gains of each generation. Wants grow faster than productive power, creating an irresistible pressure that no other force can withstand. The power of monopoly, on the contrary, is temporary; each particular monopoly gains the ascendancy at the expense of some other monopoly. The losses from new monopolies never fall on the public,—they are borne by those who have lost

the old powers that gave them a monopoly force. Monopoly temporarily increases with every improvement in production, but these gains soon fall away unless they are reinforced by those coming from the new improvements of industrial processes. Rapid progress means much monopoly; slow progress means its decay, and static conditions would lead to its disappearance. That industrial monopoly is more frequent and powerful than a century ago is the cost of rapid progress. Monopoly is the index of change and a sign of an increasing social surplus. It means no perversion of industrial forces, and is as natural a result as are any of the other phenomena of distribution."

This price theory of distribution with its corollary that industrial monopoly is a natural result of price movement Dr. Patten contrasts with Professor Clark's view that monopoly is "a general perverter of the industrial system"; and his own program of social work which was presented some months ago in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, he contrasts with Professor Clark's demand for a regulation of monopolies, formulated in his *Essentials of Economics* as follows:

"It is perfectly safe to assert that only by new and untried modes of asserting the sovereignty of the state can industry hereafter be in any sense natural, rewarding labor as it should, insuring progress, and holding before the eyes of all classes the prospect of a bright and assured future.¹ Monopoly is not a mere bit of friction which interferes with the perfect working of economic laws. It is a definite perversion of the laws themselves. It is one thing to obstruct a force and another to supplant it and introduce a different one; and this is what monopoly would do. We have inquired whether it is necessary to let monopoly have its way, and have been able to answer the question with a decided no. It grows up in consequence of certain practices which an efficient government can stop."²

"No one," says Professor Patten, "who accepts Professor Clark's principles can dissent from his conclusion. Monop-

¹*Essentials of Economics*, p. 379.

²*Essentials of Economics*, p. 559.

oly will not disappear by any force that individuals can put in action. If the tendency of prices to rise above the cost level is wrong, he is a bad citizen who benefits by the higher range of prices. The control of prices thus becomes the first duty of the state to which its older function of securing justice and fair dealings becomes subordinate. In these views Professor Clark does not stand alone. He represents the great mass of American citizens whose spokesman is President Roosevelt. For the ideas of our president no better background can be found than the economic doctrines of Professor Clark, who has developed the side of economics on which popular beliefs rest into a simple, forceful system which gives a program for action demanded by the feelings and interests of the people. The public is fully convinced that just prices are cost prices and that government should increase its functions and become a regulator of prices."

Professor Patten argues against the physical valuation of railroads and analogous estimates of the costs which manufacturers undergo as a basis for dealing with monopoly on the ground that, while watered stock is a definite sum and in a single field, watered costs are a general phenomenon. The introduction of the principle of physical valuation and the extension of the functions of government so that it becomes the controller of prices is open to the objection that, applied in a limited field, it does not aid the public, it merely lowers the value of one form of monopoly and raises that of some other. Farms go down in value as railroad rates go up; land values in cities go up as tariffs go down. Some special class gains by the price changes which the introduction of cost prices in other quarters creates. The public gains nothing by these price conflicts, however they are settled. To permit the state to control some prices is to give it the power to favor special interests: on the other hand, if it control all prices, the state becomes socialistic. Partial socialism does not cure socialism because it does not remove the evils of which the public complains:

"It merely reduces the rate of progress, and thus, by the stagnation it cre-

ates, gives new strength to the demand for more thoroughgoing socialism. The line of cost is the line of bankruptcy, and the state must soon take over any industry or enterprise that must face unexpected costs but cannot retain extra gains. We cannot get free trade through low tariffs, cheap food through low railroad rates, lower house rents by reducing the price of street-car transportation, nor can we get natural low prices through state control of particular industries.

"While monopoly cannot be prevented, its amount can be reduced by the increased power of substitution which improvements bring. The gains of monopoly are temporary, due to sudden increases of productive power. But each generation will see its sphere reduced, for the power of substitution constantly works against monopolies, as it works adversely to rent, profits and interest. Wages will gain what these shares lose, and will in each generation form a larger part of the price of commodities.

"Thus far improvements in distribution have been effected by the slow diffusion of income and intelligence that follows the general uplift of mankind. Much more is to be gained by a redistribution of population so that the national resources will be better utilized than by any scheme for the forceful alteration of prices, or the redistribution of property. The real remedy for a bad distribution of wealth is more capital to develop our unused resources. We should have double the amount of capital invested in railroads and even more in our industries. The rate of return on capital that secures progress through new investments must be higher than the rate of return that preserves capital.

"The redistribution of population following improvements in transportation will eradicate what now seems an evil in distribution, but which in reality has its cause in the present bad location of population and industry. The road to prosperity is not through class conflict, with its mulcting of the minority,—it is rather in social improvements that take men from the margin of production and place them in contact with better resources and in more favorable situations. Civiliza-

tion is a change in conditions, not an increase in fighting power. It is a movement from conflict to harmony, from a brutalizing environment of individual discords to one of peace, sympathy, and co-operation. The power that moves the race forward is that which brings the feelings and interests of men into accord, and, taking men from groups with local conflicting claims, merges them into a solid, unified nation.

"Only general far-reaching changes can give a new environment and free mankind from the depressing restraints that cause misery and poverty. Two plans for the increase of equality are open: either there must be a sacrifice of those having economic advantages in the hope that their loss will be a gain for others less advantageously situated, or there must be social work on the part of those economically favored directed towards a change in the conditions under which the poor live. Both plans have a morality, but one is the primitive morality of sacrifice, while the other is the economic morality of work. Both take income from the well-to-do; the one gives it to the poor to use as they will; the other takes it to improve external conditions from which all benefit. Primitive justice demands the giving up of all we have for the poor; economic justice consists, not in giving up positions of advantage, but in creating similar positions for other people. It is only the extension of opportunity, the growth of efficiency, the spread of knowledge and the increase of health that can cause poverty to disappear and give a secure income to every family.

"A program of social improvement thus demands work, not sacrifice. Wages should be raised, not by giving income to workers in poor situations, but by moving them to positions of advantage in other localities and industries. Social work consists in moving people from the

margin instead of aiding them at the margin. It takes men from places where poverty and disease oppress them and gives them the full advantage of a better position. It gives to the city worker the room, the air, the light and the water that the country worker has, but without his inefficiency and isolation. It gives more working years and more working days in each year, with more zeal and vitality in each working day. Health makes work pleasant, and pleasant work becomes efficient work when the environment stimulates men's powers to the full. Poor land must be made good land; desert land must be made to yield a generous return; the uplands must be turned into forests so as to protect the richer lands of the valleys; the unskilled worker must be transformed into an efficient citizen; the irregular trades into which marginal men flock must be so safeguarded that they will stimulate and elevate the worker instead of lowering his life and vitality. Children must be kept from work and women must have shorter hours and better conditions. Men can thus be moved from the margin and an equality secured through the more generous return which the new situations give. By these means the incomes and personal efforts of those favorably situated can reduce the evils of poverty without the destruction of the advantages upon which their welfare and the progress of society depend.

"The nation can gain economic equality by moving forward; it can regain primitive equality by a reassertion of cost standards. A clear perception of this contrast will do much to free the American people from the difficulties of their present situation. We cannot compromise between opposing programs for social betterment. We must do more work for others or suffer severe losses at their hands."

Juvenile Court Laws

Bernard Flexner

Louisville, Ky.

All juvenile court legislation rests upon the fundamental principle that the proceedings involving the child are not for the purpose of punishment, but for the purpose of caring for and disciplining the child. Judged, however, by the practice in the court room, it must unfortunately be admitted that there exists among juvenile court judges and workers, a marked difference of opinion as to the real nature of the proceeding itself. We find on the one hand, the child brought into court, charged substantially as in an indictment with a violation of the criminal law. The charge against the child is one of the long list of crimes interdicted by statute. The child is put upon his oath; he is arraigned; he is required to plead guilty or not guilty; he is confronted by his accusers and the witnesses against him; and finally, he is found guilty or not guilty as the case may be. Every detail, in short, of the criminal law is used against him as it is against the adult. The fact that the judgment is worked out through methods other than those used in the criminal courts does not affect the statement here made. The proceedings are criminal; the child is tried as a criminal; he comes into court and leaves it with a feeling that the whole power of the state is arrayed against him.

As opposed to this method, we find courts following more or less closely the rules of practice indicated both by the letter and spirit of the later juvenile court laws. Fortunately courts of last resort, whenever they have had these later juvenile court laws before them, have held that the proceedings are not criminal; that the strict technical interpretation of the criminal law is not contemplated; but that the power exercised by the court is a branch of the power exercised from the earliest times by the court of chancery with reference to the dependent child. In endeavoring to solve the problem the juvenile court judge has merely called to his aid modern philanthropy.

The one new note is the treatment of the delinquent child; the child, who in the language of the criminal law, has committed a crime. Obviously, if the important consideration is not the question of punishing the child for doing a specific act, but rather the treatment of the child with reference to its welfare, there is no valid reason for any different practice in the two cases of a dependent or a delinquent child. In emphasizing the difference between the rigid and technical criminal procedure on the one hand, and the more flexible rules contemplated by the later juvenile court laws on the other hand, I would not be understood as insisting upon a procedure so arbitrary and loose as to call down upon the judge and the court the just criticism that is sure to follow. The whole movement has suffered deeply enough, among other things from spectacular, arbitrary and loose court room practice. I am urging rather a sounder, saner conception of the thought underlying the whole movement; a better, more conservative understanding, not only of the real nature of the proceeding itself but of the historical value of the movement as well.

The new juvenile court law of Kentucky has this thought written into it somewhat more fully than it is found in any other law. Section 18 of the law provides:

This act shall be liberally construed, to the end that its purpose may be carried out, to-wit: That the child may be cared for as would be done by a court of chancery and that it may be trained and disciplined; that the care, supervision and discipline of the child shall approximate as nearly as may be that which should be given by its parents. The proceedings involving the child shall not be deemed to be criminal proceedings and the child shall not be considered as a criminal, but as a child in need of aid, encouragement and guidance.

The manifest intention as expressed in this section is to clear up absolutely the misconception as to the character of the proceeding itself, and further to emphasize that part of the court's work that

has regard for the care and training of the child. It must follow if this conception of the law is sound, that the proceeding in court loses in significance; it becomes, as indeed it should become, a mere incident on the road to reach the real trouble.

So far as the court itself is concerned, the Kentucky law does not differ in many particulars from the later Illinois law; in fact it draws heavily on it, omitting provisions not suited to local conditions; and adding to it in specific terms certain powers, which juvenile court judges have been exercising.

For the purpose of ascertaining whether or not any child brought into court is in normal health, the court may order a physical examination of the child with the consent of the child's parent or custodian.

The court, as part of its judgment, may compel a delinquent child to make restitution or reparation to any person injured by the child.

The court likewise may inquire into the ability of a parent to support its child and may order such parent to contribute towards the support of the child, a reasonable sum. Upon failure to pay such sum, the court may enforce its orders in any way in which a court of equity may enforce its orders.

In cities of the first and second classes a detention home is provided for, where the child may be detained pending its first hearing, or to which it may be committed for a short period after the hearing. This home must be arranged, furnished and conducted as a home and school, and the superintendent or matron must be competent to instruct children in the common school branches.

The law applies to male children seven-teen years of age or under and to female children eighteen years of age or under.

The objection that this age limit is too high, is met by the provision which permits the court in its discretion, in any case of a delinquent child, to permit proceedings against such child in accordance with the laws governing the commission of crimes.

In certain particulars the law differs from other laws.

The expenses of the court are paid by a tax levied by both the county and the city. As the assessment of property increases, the amount realized for the purposes of the court increases automatically. Heretofore, the court has been seriously hampered because of insufficient

funds and unfortunately, has had to rely upon aid from private sources in carrying on part of the routine work of the court. The number of paid probation officers, heretofore wholly inadequate, will be increased.

The law provides definitely for a comprehensive plan regarding the probation office and the work to be carried on by the probation officers. Following certain suggestions made by the State Probation Commission of New York in its preliminary report, the duties of the probation officer as bearing upon the court and the probationer are pointed out with considerable particularity. It is hoped that in this way it will be possible to gather in time definite data upon the whole subject of probation that may be of more comparative value in studying the subject than many of the statistics now available. Some of these provisions are:

The court appoints both paid and volunteer probation officers; the number of paid officers will be limited by the amount of money available for this part of the work. The maximum salary of the chief probation officer is fixed at \$2,400 a year; that of the first assistant at \$1,200 and other assistants at \$700 a year.

Upon the filing of a petition the probation officer must make a thorough investigation not only into the nature of the specific act complained of but into any and all circumstances surrounding the child, which may in any way throw light upon the future care and guidance which should be given it. This investigation must include an inquiry into its exact age, school record and everything pertaining to its life and character, and must include further an inquiry into the home conditions, life and character of its parents, guardian or custodian. The result of this inquiry must be presented in writing to the judge previous to the hearing, and becomes part of the record of the case.

The probation officer making the investigation must be present in court to represent the child when the case is heard, and to advise with the court as to the proper disposition of the child.

All probation officers are required to report as ordered, to the chief probation officer and to the court with reference to the condition and conduct of children placed on probation to them, and as far as practicable by friendly advice and admonition and by the exercise of interest and concern in their welfare to aid and encourage the probationers to keep the terms of their probation.

Probation officers are prohibited from divulging to any person other than to the

court or to the Advisory Board of the court without the consent of the judge, any facts or information obtained in the discharge of their duties.

The chief probation officer is responsible for all investigations made, and it is his duty to direct the work of all probation officers whether paid or volunteers. He is required to visit all children under the care of the court, unless excused by the court, at least twice a year, and to preserve for use in the court and probation office complete records of the subsequent conduct of the probationer.

Upon the termination of the probation period, the probation officer must report the fact to the court, giving an account of the conduct of the probationer during the period of probation, and the court may thereupon discharge the probationer or extend the probation period as circumstances require.

It will be seen that emphasis is laid in the law itself on the value of reaching the cause back of the appearance of the child in court, and on a close, personal relation between the probationer and the officer that will make it possible to work out definite constructive results. Such a plan naturally contemplates in any case justifying probation at all, a period of probationary oversight somewhat more extended than seems to have been the practice in other courts. The law does not fix a minimum period of probation. It was deemed best to leave this to be determined finally by the judge, chief probation officer and the probation officer having personal oversight of the child. Thus the probation office becomes not only a necessary and intimate part but a most significant part of the court. It is in the probation office that the church, the school, the club and in short, every agency of preventive philanthropy is brought into touch with the court in the real work before it, namely: in teaching, caring for and upbuilding the child. Such a probation office as is here contemplated, must be closely knit, well organized, capable of making a complete investigation of all the facts, so as to aid the judge in reaching a wise conclusion, and likewise competent to carry out in an efficient way, the judgment of the court. It should be further a probation office that knows the difference between a case that ought to reach the court and one that ought not; that will not permit

the court to be used as a clearing house for neighborhood quarrels; that without doing violence to the law will persistently set its face against dragging children into court when there is no need for it, but that outside the court, will undertake to correct the conditions that cry out for correction. It must be in short a probation office that will take credit to itself, not in the number of children that have been brought into court, but rather in the number that have been kept out of it.

The judge is empowered to appoint an advisory board of not less than six nor more than ten persons. This board is given the right of visitation over institutions receiving children committed by the court. It is charged further with the duty of advising with and recommending to the court any needful measure in the interest of the work. This board does its work through committees made up of members of the board and persons outside it. Thus, the committee on probation officers recommends to the court suitable persons to act as officers. The employment committee will establish in connection with the probation office an employment bureau for children and different committees will care for other details of the work.

The persistent truant is the incipient delinquent. Recognizing this, and the further fact that truancy is often merely the evidence of a condition for which the child is not responsible, but for which its parent is answerable, the new truant law of Kentucky vests in the juvenile court, jurisdiction over both the truant and the parent. We have, therefore, in the juvenile court power to compel the child to attend school, and further power to make such orders as are necessary to make the parent keep the child at school.

The law applies to children in proper physical or mental condition between the ages of seven and fourteen years inclusive, such children must attend some public, private or parochial school, each school year for a full term. The law exempts such children who are being taught at home in such branches as are taught in the public schools and those who have prior to fourteen acquired the common school branches. For the purpose of ascertaining these facts the judge may order any child to submit to an

examination given by the city superintendent of the public schools.

A passport, a verified baptismal certificate, a duly attested birth certificate, or certified copy under oath of a record of a family Bible or other religious record, shall be produced as proof of age. In case such certificates or records cannot be secured, upon proof of such fact the record of age stated in the first school enrollment to be found shall be considered as evidence.

The law provides a fine and imprisonment in the case of any parent who makes a false statement concerning the age of the child, or the time the child has attended school.

The truant officers are appointed by the Board of Education and are under the direct supervision and control of the superintendents of the schools. During the month of August in each year (which is the month preceding the opening of school) the superintendent is required to furnish to the principal of each school a list taken from the last census of children, of all children of compulsory school age who by law are required to attend such school; such list to be alphabetically arranged and to contain the name, date and place of birth of each child, the name, address and occupation of such child's parent, guardian or custodian. The principal of each school is required to report by Saturday of each week to the superintendent of public schools the name and address of each child who has been absent from school without lawful excuse or who is persistently truant from school, together with the name of such child's parent, guardian or custodian. Immediately upon receiving such report the superintendent is required to have the truant officers examine into such cases of absence or truancy, and to take any and all steps necessary to compel such child to attend school. Truant officers are likewise compelled to report weekly all cases of truancy submitted to them.

The steps taken by the truant officer to compel the attendance of the child at school are: to give written notice to the parent, guardian or custodian, that the attendance of such child is required at school; if within five days from the date of such notice the parent, guardian or custodian does not compel the child to attend school, the truant officer is required to proceed against such child in the juvenile court under the juvenile court law as a delinquent child, and in the same court against the parent, guardian or custodian under the adult responsibility law for contributing to the condition which renders the child a delinquent child.

For the purpose of enabling the court to carry out its judgment more effectively boards of education are authorized and empowered to establish truant schools. The provisions of the law as to parental or truant schools follow more or less closely the statute of Illinois with reference to such schools; and permits the court to allow a child committed to such school, to return home upon probation, subject to the friendly visitation and supervision of a probation officer of the juvenile court, and subject at any time to be returned to such school, if in the opinion of the juvenile court the probationer has violated the terms and conditions of his probation.

The juvenile court laws of Kentucky embrace, therefore, not only the two laws considered here but the adult responsibility law as well, the essential features of which have been explained heretofore in this journal.

The Business of Play

Lee F. Hanmer

Field Secretary, Playground Association of America

[Mr. Hanmer, who has been dubbed "The Play Drummer" by the newspapers, has just completed a trip from the Atlantic to the Pacific in the interests of playground extension.]

"When the public schools close for the vacation my business begins to pick up." This statement was recently made at a playground meeting by the judge of the juvenile court in a leading western city. At a similar meeting in another city the following testimony was also given by a juvenile court judge:

About five months ago the physical director of our Y. M. C. A. undertook to provide organized games and athletics for the boys in my district. The gymnasium of a club house in that neighborhood was secured for certain afternoons and evenings, a vacant lot was fitted up as an athletic field and playground, and the boys were organized into teams and clubs. Meetings and practice hours were scheduled and tournaments

arranged. During the five months that this work has been in progress the business of my court has decreased seventy-five per cent.

These instances are given to illustrate the fact that the need of organized play is being recognized and the remedy applied in the cities of the West as well as in the East.

A city superintendent of schools stated at one of our meetings that it took several weeks of hard work every fall to bring discipline in the schools up to the point where it was at the close of school in the spring. He suggested supervised playgrounds as a remedy.

Cities are coming to realize that it does not pay to turn the boys and girls loose, not only for the summer, but even after school hours and on Saturdays, with no place for play except the streets, alleys, railroad yards, docks, etc.—places in which, in most cities, they are forbidden to play. Dr. Gulick stated the situation pretty fairly when he said, "When a municipality makes it illegal to play in the streets, it should provide places where play will not only be lawful but will be encouraged."

The average city child looks upon all out-of-doors as the enemy's country, and therefore abuses the privileges and blessings that he has never been taught to use. When he learns that out-of-doors belongs to the crowd and to him as a member of that crowd, his attitude is likely to change and he to become a partner instead of a competitor. The boy who plays a game with the policeman by seeing how far he can get into mischief and not get caught is not likely to hesitate to play the same game on a larger scale with the officers of the law when he comes to be a man.

This, however, is the preventive side of playgrounds only. There is a positive side also that is coming to be recognized these days, and it stands for education and morality; for the formation of good habits and the development of character; and makes for citizenship of a higher order.

People are in some ways finding this out, and that is why sixty-six cities conducted playgrounds last summer, and 216 are seriously considering the matter for the summer of 1908.

The seed sown at the Playground Congress in Chicago last spring is already bearing fruit, and the indications are that the congress which is to be held in New York city September 8-12, will produce a crop unparalleled in the history of any department of social work.

People have been hearing about playgrounds and reading of the good work that they are doing, and those who are public spirited and progressive are anxious to know more about plans of organization and administration. It requires only a visit by some one in touch with the general movement, or attendance at a convention of playground workers, to bring about definite action. It was for the purpose of meeting this need—and enlarging the need—that the Playground Association of America was organized. Its aim is to serve as a clearing house for playground information.

The agencies by which playgrounds are started and maintained are as varied as the conditions in the different cities. In one city a woman's club will rent or borrow a site, provide the equipment necessary, employ a supervisor, and conduct a summer playground. In another city the work—or play—will be started by the Y. M. C. A., or a civic improvement league, or a public education association, or a city club, or a playground association. Sometimes the beginning is made by the Park Board, or the School Board, or a playground commission. The tendency is for the playgrounds to pass more and more under the direct control of the city. The important thing is to get them started under proper supervision. The best argument for playgrounds is a playground well conducted for a season.

In one city a woman's club has worked for three years trying to get the city authorities to make an appropriation for playgrounds. They did not start the work themselves for fear that they would thus establish a precedent that would make it difficult to get municipal support for playgrounds later. If they had started and successfully conducted a playground the first year that they began agitating the matter, it is probable that by this time the city would have been supplying the funds. They were surprised to

find that this was the method by which the majority of playgrounds have been established.

To provide space and equipment only, as some cities have unfortunately done, does not meet the need. Supervision is absolutely essential, and it must be supervision of the right sort. One director put it well when he said that for his helpers he wanted "men that are so manly and women that are so womanly that their manliness and womanliness will rub off on the boys and girls and help them to become of the same sort."

There was a time when play was looked upon as a mere pastime, in the same class with idleness, directly opposed to anything productive of permanent good. Now the physical, educational, and moral values of play and games are coming to be appreciated, and the small cities as well as the large are providing supervised playgrounds. The movement is not local or sectional. From cities of the north, south, east, and west come requests for information and advice, and offers of positions for men and women who have training and experience in this work.

The supply of trained playground teachers is woefully limited, just at the time when they are specially needed—the time when playgrounds are "on trial"—in many cities. To meet this demand the Playground Association has appointed a committee to prepare courses of instruction on playground organization and administration to be sent to all normal schools and colleges in the country. Where this subject has been presented to normal schools, and the extent of the movement described, there has been a ready response and requests for suggestions of courses of instruction that may be given.

The fact that in the future supervised playgrounds are to be conducted, not only during the summer vacation but also after school hours and on Saturdays during the whole year, makes it evident that a knowledge of playground work must be a part of the public school teacher's equipment. Those who provide themselves with such equipment will thereby be able to materially increase

their income, and will at the same time come into a kind of relation with the boys and girls that will help to solve many of the difficult problems of school discipline.

The indications are that the time is nearly past when school boards will take the position that one did in a city recently visited. A committee from the Woman's Club applied to the board for permission to use a school yard as a public playground under their supervision during the summer vacation. The board discussed the application at length and refused to grant the request on the ground that school property could be used only for "educational purposes."

The experience of some of our older cities in being forced by conditions of congestion to purchase sites for playgrounds at enormous expense, is being heeded by the rapidly growing cities of the West and space is being set aside for this purpose before it is too late. An indication of the tendency in this direction is illustrated by a bill that passed the Legislature of the state of Washington last year but was afterwards vetoed by the governor. It provided that in all additions to cities of 10,000 inhabitants or more one tenth of the area, exclusive of streets, should be set aside for parks and playgrounds. This idea coincides splendidly with the present widespread interest in city planning. Cities are discovering that they cannot afford to go on growing in a haphazard way, and some day be obliged to tear down and build over at enormous expense, and then have only a makeshift at best. Instead they are employing experts to lay out a plan for ultimate development. Happily for the boys and girls, and for the public welfare too, most of our leading landscape architects appreciate the necessity of providing playgrounds as well as parks and boulevards.

Probably the greatest advance that is being made along this line is in a larger use of school buildings and grounds. School boards are coming to realize that it is not good business to have a great educational plant, costing thousands of dollars, in use only five hours of the day

for five days of the week during nine months of the year.

The rooms are being used for evening classes and social centers, and teachers are being assigned to the grounds after school hours, on Saturdays, and during the summer vacation. Thus boys and girls are allowed to use the playgrounds instead of being driven off into the streets by the janitor as soon as school is dismissed. Several boards have gone a step further and adopted the policy of purchasing only such new sites as have sufficient space for play, and also of securing additional space where possible in the case of old sites that have no playgrounds.

In one city recently visited the authorities declared that there was no need of giving special attention to play in their city because every school had a good playground and the city had a mile of splendid bathing beach. Investigation disclosed the fact that the children were not allowed to play on the school grounds after school hours, nor during holidays, and that the bathing beach offered no opportunity for use by those not provided with bathing suits. The mayor admitted that many of the children could not afford to own or rent suits. These facts, together with a presentation of the advantages of supervised play, readily brought about a change of attitude.

The important place that playgrounds are being given in civic affairs is well illustrated in San Francisco. In spite of their enormous financial burdens in rebuilding their city, they have voted a bond issue of \$741,000 for the purchase of playground sites, and on May 20 an appropriation of \$20,000 was made for this year's running expenses. A playground commission of seven members has been appointed which will annually present its budget, get its appropriation, and carry on its work just as definitely as any other department of the city administration. Also games and athletics for the schoolboys are being formally organized with the approval and co-operation of the school board.

In Los Angeles a public recreation building is being erected by the Playground Commission at a cost of \$50,000.

The city's appropriation last year for the support of the playgrounds was \$40,000. A plan of resident supervisors is being worked out successfully in that city. A residence is provided on each playground for the supervisor in charge, thus making it possible for him to become a real part of the community in which he works. At a recent exhibition at one of these grounds the police were utterly unable to control the spectators and keep the playing space clear. The supervisor came to the rescue with his megaphone, and had no difficulty in clearing the field and restoring order. They were willing to respect his wishes because he was one of them and the playground was their property and the children playing there were their children.

The playground must provide interesting activities. Mr. De Groot of the Chicago playgrounds recently said: "I doubt if we can ever build playgrounds that will be one-half as attractive to the boys as the streets, alleys, railroad yards, and docks, teeming as they do with human interest and offering to the boys all the materials that they need for play, and quite contrary to our supposition they ask for nothing better." If we hope to get the children to use those places that are set aside and labeled "public playgrounds" we must see to it that activities are offered there that make these places attractive, that is, there must be "something doing" every minute of the time while these playgrounds are open, and this can be accomplished only by placing them in charge of men and women who understand boys and girls and who have a knowledge of the different kinds of games and activities that appeal to children of different ages.

Proper supervision is the key to success. Play in itself is neither good nor bad, but the mutual relationships involved in play have an influence that may be for good or may be for evil. Therefore we must have play under right conditions, and the city streets are not likely to furnish such conditions, nor is the freedom of the country sure to do so. The properly supervised playground seems to be the solution of the problem. We do not want supervision that restricts

and robs play of its spontaneity but the kind that so regulates and controls that there shall be the greatest possible freedom for all. Freedom is essential to play. In this connection a recent expression by Edward T. Devine is significant: "Growth comes when there is freest choice."

The need of well conducted playgrounds in any community is well illustrated by an instance that recently came to my attention. A boy was arrested for stealing apples. The judge of the juvenile court turned him over to the probation officer who took occasion as soon as they were alone to have a heart to heart talk with him. "Now Jack," she said, "I want you to tell me how you came to get into this trouble. Is it true that you like apples so very well that, if you can't get them in any other way, you just have to steal them? Is it your love for apples that is the cause of all this?" Jack looked somewhat confused and surprised. He had never thought of it in this light

before. Then hanging his head in embarrassment he said, "No, ma'am, but it is such fun to have them chase me." What that boy wanted was a game, not apples, and the city is not looking out for its own welfare that does not provide him a means of having his game in a good, wholesome way, instead of forcing him to have it under conditions that are paving the way for greater offenses against the community when he comes to be a man.

"If you take care of the pennies the dollars will take care of themselves," is an adage familiar to us all. It is the motto for thrift and commercialism. The new spirit of humanity and social service is revising it now to read, "Take care of the boys and girls and the welfare of society will be insured."

There are evidences that the cities of our country are looking to supervised playgrounds as a means of doing just this thing.

The Playground Association in Philadelphia

Ethel McKenzie

Philadelphia is one of the American cities where there is a need for playground space. With the exception of Fairmount Park lying well within the city, there are only some few squares affording excellent examples of the efficacy of the small boy's desire to "keep off the grass." Some years ago the Starr Center Settlement opened a small playground in one of the most congested districts. This playground, maintained entirely on a philanthropic basis, was quite unable to hold the children who daily came to play.

Interesting is the experience of Dr. and Mrs. Talcott Williams, who had been annoyed by a gang of boys frequenting an alley in the back of their premises. They decided to put a few swings in their yard and ask the children in to play. The effect was instantaneous. Instead of being tormented, they immediately passed under the patronage and protection of the small boy.

A definite organization for the children's play was first discussed informally by Lucien Hugh Alexander, George W. Orton and Dr. R. Tait McKenzie.

It was decided that for any movement on behalf of the children of the city to be a success, it would be necessary to interest the heads of the Philadelphia school system. The matter was discussed with Dr. Brumbaugh, the superintendent of education, and William A. Stecher, the director of physical education, while the head of the parochial schools, Rev. Father McDevitt, with the endorsement of Archbishop Ryan, heartily entered into the spirit of the movement. Dr. Brumbaugh was elected president, Father McDevitt, vice-president, and their active work together represents for the first time in Philadelphia the genuine co-operation of these two great school systems.

Letters and circulars were sent out to leading citizens; a conference was held,

in a short time a constitution was adopted, and the Playground Association became an active organization. In previous years the Board of Education had allowed some of the school yards to be used during the summer as recreation grounds, but insufficient funds curtailed even this.

The necessity for raising money was apparent, and it was suggested that a tag-day should be adopted,—a day when the whole city should be given over to the children and the playground, thus awakening the public to an understanding of the movement.

A million tags were distributed by various committees among the schools, stores, hotels and business houses, to be sold to the citizens at whatever price they wished. The city was well canvassed, and posters were placed in available windows. The evening previous to tag day, a mass meeting was held in the Academy of Music. The mayor presided, and went on record in a speech, giving his enthusiastic support to the movement. Other spirited talks were given by Dr. Talcott Williams, Rev. Father McDevitt, by the president, Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh, while Graham Romeyn Taylor of Chicago described the playground and recreation center system in that city. But with all this, and despite the daily notices in the papers, tag day came as a great surprise.

The business man hurrying in on the train early in the morning was attacked by vigilant tag sellers in the station; the elevator-boy, in his office building, had the same morning greeting for him. At his lunch hour pretty girls besieged him in the restaurant—even at his dinner at night, his knives and forks were tagged. Policemen, motormen, children, shoppers, rich and poor alike, all were tagged. On a bench in a park sat a dejected looking



fellow, hatless and collarless, but a tag fluttered from his coat. Down in a dark slum street a crippled little pickaninny sat on a curb and boasted that he'd "done buyed dis here 'stead o' gettin' a stick o' spearmint." Even the dogs trotted round the streets with a humorous wag to their tails and a betagged collar. The mayor was besieged all day, but every time he was a willing buyer. Before a fashionable women's tea room an over-dressed woman stepped from an automobile. "Nothing but tags, tags!" she ejaculated, angrily, as she

flounced back into her car, dodging the taggers. Two young women were assigned to a popular downtown restaurant at the lunch hour, and relate some interesting observations on masculine nature. One insisted that the other being a married woman should take the men's entrance, so, brave in the confidence of six months' knowledge of the stronger sex, she timidly raised her voice as the hungry men rushed by, intent on the meal before them. It was disheartening, until the music began, and then the change jingled so jovially that the page-boy remarked, "We are side-tracked today." The men coming from their meal, well fed and comfortable, were much more disposed to give. One bluff old westerner stopped and bought a tag for a dollar, asking slyly if it would be pinned on by a pretty girl—and on one being promptly fastened to his coat, he pulled out another dollar. "For my wife," he said, "and I'll tell her it was pinned on by the second prettiest girl in the world." A flashy individual lingered a long time before the little table, and failing to get a response to his admiring glances, bought a tag for five cents. "The women are stingy," said the girl at the other entrance, when they compared notes. "I only made a dollar and five cents; and

you?" "Nine dollars," said the weary little bride, "but how glad I am I had my brown veil with me."

At the headquarters on Broad street where an empty store had been loaned for the day, the committee was kept busy giving out tags to the relays of boys. Official taggers wore a ribbon marked, "Don't tease," but early in the morning it was discovered that newsboys had bought tags at a cent each, and were reselling them for larger sums. Some of these embryo capitalists even maintained that their dishonesty was but a sound business procedure, while others, a prey to their baser passions, fell into the

clutches of the hokey-pokey man, who was not slow to take advantage of the prevalence of pennies. The experience gained in this first trial of the plan will enable all such abuses to be avoided on future annual tag days.

Twenty thousand dollars in cash was raised. But there was even a greater contribution made to the children of Philadelphia than the pennies which dropped into these little boxes. The whole community was awakened in one day to the needs of the city's children, and the dreamer already sees before him a better and stronger generation, with the right to play and the heart to work.

The Trend of Things

We are getting old too fast according to an address by J. J. Kelso of Toronto, Canada, on Play and the Play Spirit. Mr. Kelso's paper has been printed in attractive pamphlet form. It reviews in a brief, readable style the need for play and play festivals in Canada on a national scope. Of the need for leisure and recreation he writes:

"Nowadays we are getting to look on the sad side of life altogether too much, and we ought to keep constantly in mind that man needs diversion, needs to forget the cares and worries of business life, and if we cannot be happy ourselves, if we are too busy making money to take time to enjoy life let us at least provide the facilities for boys and girls to be young while they are young.

"The whole tendency of modern time seems to be to make prematurely old folk of our boys and girls. Take our school life: children are expected to learn too fast, are given a whole lot of lessons to take home at night, worrying their little brains, and also worrying the life out of their parents trying to answer questions that are quite beyond them. Many of the nervous diseases that people suffer from to-day are due to overwork in school and to that senseless rush to get an education fast. A father told me the other day his daughter, not seventeen years of age, had matriculated and was ready to enter the university. And in all our universities we have boys and girls who are mere children, not mature enough to get the full benefit of a university course."

* * *

In his annual address as president of the Christian Social Union, Clinton Rogers Woodruff of Philadelphia, points out that while his organization has thus far "most frequently represented laudable aspirations rather than achievement," it has at least made a beginning at the latter, and it sees

clearly where its work lies as a positive factor in social advance.

"The social problem is upon us," he says. "As one of our church papers has pointed out, in the present struggle, which has merely commenced, it will be demonstrated that the moral and religious forces of society are still potent. The place of the church is clearly defined—it must be in the forefront of the battle for social righteousness." If the command of Christ to love our enemies as well as our neighbors were fully realized and acted upon by the church, it would help to solve "the principal social problems of injustice and inequality. The evils of child labor, of the congestion of our great cities, of immigration, of the race problem, of prostitution, of greed and corruption, of crime and disease, will disappear just in proportion as we manifest this essentially Christian doctrine."

While acknowledging that there is much to justify the oft-repeated statement that the church has failed in its social mission and that it is losing its hold upon the masses, Mr. Woodruff warns the church's critics not to overlook the substantial social work which it is doing in an ever growing number of parishes and through organized effort. In an article published in *The Outlook*, Rev. W. D. P. Bliss showed that church members form seventy-four per cent of more than a thousand social workers to whom he sent question blanks, and among these the Protestant Episcopal Church was most largely represented. In a formal resolution passed at the last general convention this church took a strong stand against child-labor—a stand commented upon at the time in this magazine—and it has made into a permanent body its joint commission on the relations of capital and labor. "The church as a whole is slowly awakening to its opportunities for social work and to its duty in the premises. The Christian Social Union aims to accelerate that awakening."

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

CIVIC CONFERENCE FOR MASSACHUSETTS

The Massachusetts Civic Conference, organized under the auspices of the Massachusetts Civic League, will hold its first meeting in Boston on November 13 and 14. This conference is to be conducted in the same general way as the numerous state conferences of charities, and it is intended as a medium for the exchange of ideas, and for the presentation of practical results on the whole range of civic problems. It will be conducted on the open house principle and all organizations in any way concerned in civic matters will be represented. Improvement associations, women's clubs and granges; churches as standing for civic righteousness, and schools and libraries as standing for civic intelligence; municipalities as presenting opportunity for civic experiment; all will be represented.

The first program divides itself into three interesting heads: the work and methods of improvement associations, provincialism or local patriotism as a necessary basis for community work and for the larger patriotism, and methods of utilizing the gang tendency among boys and young men. Under the third head one session will be given to recreational work, play organizations and the like, and one session to industrial education as a social force. On the one hand practical examples will be given as to how a non-sectarian boys' club ran a town along right lines, how a village academy broke up the gangs, how a church may be institutional and constructive; and on the other, there will be discussions on the need of useful and interesting work to replace the fast dis-

appearing chores of an earlier day, on what a commission on industrial education may do, and on the social value of agricultural teaching in the country schools.

The sub-committee on recreation is planning for some practical work during the summer in connection with a very interesting bill recently enacted by the Legislature. This bill provides that at the next election some twenty-five or thirty cities and towns of over 10,000 population, not already provided with playgrounds, shall vote on the question of establishing a good and sufficient playground for the first 10,000 of the population and an additional playground for each additional 20,000. The committee hopes to aid in the establishment of a local committee or association in every place where the vote will have to be taken, to develop public sentiment and secure a favorable vote. The office of the Civic League, 3 Joy street, Boston, stands ready to receive requests for information and advice.

THE ORGANIZATION OF WOMEN WORKERS

The Boston Women's Trade Union League took advantage last month of the presence there as a delegate to the Convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs of Mrs. Raymond Robins, the national president of the league, to hold two public meetings. One of these meetings, held at Faneuil Hall, took the form of a mid-day rally to give wage-earning women an opportunity of meeting Mrs. Robins. While Mrs. Robins was the only speaker, accompanying her, and scattered through the audience, were representatives of the league from New

York, Chicago and Boston. Mrs. Robins spoke particularly of trade organization among women who are engaged in factory industries. She described the most serious results in the health of young women in running some of the new machines, and dwelt especially on the injustice resulting from the piece system by which the more zealously a girl works, the less she is able to earn. She called attention to the fact that such conditions can only be thoroughly understood by those who have an acquaintance with them, and it is those working women who learn to manage in an organized way the conditions of their work who are finding one of the most effective solutions for the complicated industrial situations facing the women of the day.

On Sunday evening a public meeting arranged for the visiting club women was addressed by Miss Leonora O'Reilly, who gave a poetic and eloquent presentation of the story of the development of the sewing machine and its girl operative. At this meeting Mrs. O'Sullivan of Boston, trained as a bookbinder, Miss Agnes Nestor of Chicago, a glove-maker and international secretary of her union, and the president, also spoke, making a special appeal to those interested in the industrial situation of women to become allies of the league by membership in it.

The presence of various members from other cities, due to the meeting of the national executive board at this time, to which one day was devoted, gave an opportunity for various conferences as to more detailed questions affecting the organization and some of the unions which belong to the league.

The most conspicuous fact in regard to the personnel of these officers is that trade organization among women is developing leaders of unusual character and ability among the wage-earning women themselves. The Trade Union League, made up of such women as delegates from various unions, of unorganized workers who look forward to the opportunity for organization, and allies from among the professional and non-wage-earning women of the community, offers an unusual opportunity of co-operation for ameliorations and progressive fundamental im-

provement in factory work for women between the various classes of women, all in some measure responsible for industrial conditions. It is an organization sincerely democratic in spirit providing a social safeguard both against exploitation of the employe and also against un intelligent and unguided discontent in industries where women are employed.

The summer meetings of the New York league are held in Central park. The early organization of a stenographers' union is announced.

FOUR CLASSES OF BAD BOYS

Governor Guild of Massachusetts has appointed as a board of trustees for the industrial school for boys, established by the Legislature at its last session, David F. Slade, Miss Golde Bambe, Matthew Luce, Miss Maud M. Rockwell, James J. Sheehan, John A. Horgan, and Charles M. Davenport. Mr. Slade is designated as chairman of the board.

The school is to be planned for boys too old to be committed to the Lyman School and too young to be appropriately committed to the Concord Reformatory. This fills a gap in the systematic scheme of care for juvenile delinquents planned in Massachusetts as far back as 1897. In 1896 a commission was appointed to investigate the charitable and reformatory interests and institutions of the commonwealth. This commission reported in 1897 advocating, among other things, the establishment of an intermediate reformatory. The matter has been under constant agitation since that time, and in the past few years has had very general support from the judiciary of the state, the state board of charity, and many reform organizations. The establishment of this institution gives Massachusetts an opportunity to divide into practically four classes boys and young men whom the courts find it necessary to commit. This is of great value in keeping younger boys away from the bad influences of those who are older. Massachusetts believes that it now has a complete system and that all that is necessary is for each institution to do its work efficiently.

THE PUBLIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The function of the Public Education Association of New York city has been said to be holding up the hands of those who have at heart the welfare of the school children, or, in other words, acting as a medium of communication and interpretation between the public on the one hand and the educational authorities on the other. In cases where the official intentions of the Department of Education are in advance of public opinion, it becomes the duty of the association to do all in its power to educate the people; whereas, should public opinion outstrip the authorities, the association must bend its efforts towards inducing the officials to carry out the people's will. There is an unquestionable need for an intelligent and energetic organization with such an aim.

Among its other activities, the Public Education Association, through its committees, visits the public schools in order to keep in touch with methods and standards of work; it brings nature materials into the schoolrooms for purposes of exhibition and study; it encourages parents' meetings in connection with the schools; and it is especially interested in securing better play spaces for the children,—both by the opening of more playgrounds out of school hours, and by the purchase and equipment of new plots and buildings. Through its art committee it undertakes to decorate certain selected schools with pictures and casts, and to advise with teachers as to the best expenditure of the funds allowed each school for this purpose. The association is also engaged in social work among the children of the city, for it co-operates in maintaining a school for the boys and young men detained in the Tombs awaiting trial, and in connection with the home and school visiting committee a visitor is retained whose function it is to reach the children in their homes. This is one of the most important phases of the society's work, and it is hoped that ultimately a well equipped home and a school visitor will be part of the official requirement of every large school. The association's visitor Miss Jane Day, is

able to take up only a small proportion of the cases brought to her notice by the school authorities who are anxious to have her help in the treatment of many sad or difficult situations. In one or two instances the visitor has been enabled to rescue young boys from the necessity of peddling at night in questionable places, or of working under unsanitary conditions, and to make it possible for them to go continuously to school. In dozens of cases her influence has ameliorated, or cured outright, stubborn cases of truancy and idleness, due often to malnutrition and bad home environment.

The truancy problem has received expert attention from E. E. Agger, the agent of the truancy committee of the association, who has carried on an important investigation into the disposition of truancy cases in the magistrates' courts. All legislative movements bearing upon the schools are kept under surveillance by the school affairs committee, and appropriate action is taken to forward what in the opinion of the association may be the best interests of the schools. The technical and trade school committee is active in drafting plans for the extension of technical and manual training courses designed to meet the economic needs of the pupils. A vital and interesting investigation into the conditions and needs of the high schools is in progress by the high school committee. In the course of this investigation it has already been demonstrated that the attendance in these schools has decreased in a ratio disproportionate to the increase in equipment and facilities; that the courses offered fit the pupils primarily for college, whereas, in point of fact, only a small number of students go even so far as to graduate from the high school, and most drop out after two years or less. In many cases, moreover, those students who so leave have pressing need of training for some vocation and are always in need of further training for citizenship. There is at present little elasticity in the courses offered, and little inclination to have the pupils profit by such elasticity as exists. The chairman of the high school committee, Prof. David Snedden, contributed an article to

CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for April 25 on Social Opportunities of New York City High Schools.

DAY CAMP SCHOOL OF OUTDOOR LIFE

The Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis has opened a day camp for children known to have a definite predisposition to tuberculosis because of unusual exposure or low vitality, and for those in the incipient and non-contagious stages of the disease. All such children can be improved, it is believed, by living all day in the fresh air, by good food and by skillful supervision of their rest and recreation. The results obtained by the day camp for adults, established by the association but now taken over by the Boston city authorities, lead to the belief that the camp for children will prove a valuable part of Boston's tuberculosis campaign. In France such a movement has grown up under the leadership of the late Professor Grancher, including country homes and schools, and throughout Germany, in England and in other parts of Europe "pre-tuberculous" children are sent to schools-in-the-woods. All of the life is out of doors, except during storms.

The Boston day camp will be on the grounds of Brigham Hospital, 125 Parker Hill avenue. A new temporary building, designed by Hartley Dennett, will be erected as a kitchen, storeroom and lavatory. There will be another small building for the doctor's office and tents for dining and rest. Vegetable and flower gardens will be laid out and the children taught how to care for them. All of the products of the garden will be given to the little gardeners. The association nurse will visit the homes of the children to adjust living conditions to camp conditions. Quite appropriately, the camp is called the Day Camp School of Outdoor Life.

Walter E. Kruesi, secretary of the association, will be superintendent of the camp; Miss Elizabeth McIntire of Mat-tapan will be matron and teacher, and her sister, Miss Emily McIntire, will be in charge of the garden work and play. A special committee in general charge is

composed of Dr. James J. Minot, chairman; Mrs. Charles A. Cummings, Mrs. Abel Hyams, George S. Mumford, Horatio A. Lamb, and Dr. Arthur K. Stone.

Particular attention will be given to the correction and development of the physique of each child after a thorough-going physical examination.

The Brewers' Convention

Hugh F. Fox

Secretary United States Brewers' Association

The forty-eighth annual convention of the United States Brewers' Association which was held in Milwaukee last month, challenged the attention of the newspapers by its frank discussion of the public issues involved in the regulation of the saloon, and the administration of the excise laws. The meeting was unique in the annals of the trade. Questions of merely trade interests were relegated to an executive session, all the other meetings being thrown open to the public.

The failure of prohibition was emphasized by impartial observers who have no connection with the brewing industry, but they did not mince matters in speaking of disorderly and disreputable saloons which, as was pointed out, are just as serious a menace to the trade itself as they are to the community. In fact it was shown clearly that much of the present antagonism to the license system is due to the way in which it has been abused. This abuse was variously attributed to over-competition, bad legislation, inefficiency on the part of licensing authorities, police negligence and political corruption. As the president, Julius Liebmann, said: "The law-maker, the magistrate, the police authorities, the landlord, the bonding companies, and the licensing authorities must share the odium which rests upon the saloon and its backers for the evils which have arisen." The futility of discussing the measure of the brewers' responsibility was, however, tacitly admitted, and it was conceded that the question of pressing interest is, "How can the matter be remedied?"

The formal reports of the officers and trustees declared:

That the saloon should not be used to foster the social evil, and should utterly be divorced from it.

That the saloon should not be used for gambling purposes.

That the saloon should not be open to minors and that the sale of intoxicants to children should be proscribed.

It was also maintained:

That the temperate use of alcoholic liquors is so widely spread as to be a national custom.

That this generation of men and women is more temperate than any preceding generation in our history.

That the abuse of such liquors, while comparatively small, is nevertheless a grave, and to some extent, an unnecessary evil.

That practical remedies are to be found in regulation, education, moral suasion, and in raising the standard of living.

That the standard of living can best be raised by improving housing conditions, by liberal expenditures for public health, industrial training, and recreation centers, and by reducing the hours of work and increasing the scale of wages of the unskilled laboring class.

The attorney for the Wisconsin brewers followed this up by declaring that:

No license should be granted by local authorities to any person unless the licensee is a person of good moral character, able to exercise self-restraint himself. That the local authorities should refuse license to all places for the sale of intoxicating liquors in saloons where liquors are served in private apartments, private rooms, stalls, or behind screens. That all saloons licensed to sell liquor, be one open room where all persons may be seen by one another. That no license be granted to any person who sells or permits to be sold to any one intoxicated or bordering upon intoxication, liquors of any kind. That no license be granted to a person who conducts in connection with his saloon, dances or a dancing hall. That in all those saloons over which the manufacturer has control, we suggest the discontinuance of all artifices or inducements to attract trade and customers, such as music or mechanical devices showing pictures, or musical instruments playing popular airs. We would suggest the refusal to license saloons connected with concerts, so-called. There is a clear distinction between legitimate concerts, such as are held in turn-halls and gardens, etc., where the saloon is but an adjunct to the concert, and those places where the concert is an adjunct to the saloon and is maintained only for the purpose of attracting trade to the saloon.

The association, after some discussion, adopted unanimously a declaration of principles favoring the passage and enforcement of laws for the regulation of the drink traffic, and for keeping such traffic free from unlawful and improper accessories; recognizing that the multiplication of saloons beyond the requirements of the market is a source of evil, and that the maintenance of saloons in residence neighborhoods, where they are not desired by the residents, should not be permitted. The convention made a bid for the co-operation of the public and of the proper authorities in the regulation of the saloon, and extermination of objectionable places, and stated that:

The brewers are ready to be taken at their word. Already in many places they are engaged in active work for the purification of the retail trade. In some cases this is being done on their own initiative with the help of the constituted authorities; in other cases they are co-operating, while the authorities and certain volunteer organizations are leading; again they are doing it in spite of the politicians and against the wishes of the so-called reformers. They are trying to do what is really and properly the work of the official representatives of the people.

One of the interesting features of the convention was an address made by J. A. Caldwell, judge of the Juvenile Court of Cincinnati, who has sworn in three of the local brewers as volunteer probation officers, to aid in enforcing the law, particularly in reference to violations by saloon-keepers who sell to minors, and to breaking up disreputable resorts. Judge Caldwell declared that his experiment has proved successful, and he made a spirited appeal to the members of the convention to follow the example of the Brewers' Board of Trade of Cincinnati in raising the standard of the saloon business.

While the brewer individually may not be able to accomplish much in the way of reform, the organized power of the brewing trade can be made a powerful factor. Much of the confused thought about the use and abuse of intoxicants comes from the failure to differentiate between the saloon problem and the liquor problem. The saloon problem is essentially a municipal problem, implying careful study of local conditions, and

adaptation to local needs in the number of saloons, hours of opening, and amount of license fee, etc. It is primarily a question of the social control and regulation of a business which cannot be left with safety to the working of the ordinary law of supply and demand. A fair licensing law, with reasonable elasticity for the play of local initiative, puts the responsibility upon the civic authorities, where it properly belongs. As a general principle, public convenience should be the determining consideration in the granting of a license. A saloon should not be licensed in advance of the development of a new community; the need for it should first clearly be felt.

The liquor problem is personal and individual. It involves the scientific study of inebriety, with proper provision for the segregation of chronic dipsomaniacs, and for the medical treatment of hopeful cases.

Let me emphasize these points:

The consumption of alcoholic beverages cannot be abolished by law.

The sale thereof has never been stopped by law, in centers of population.

In all such centers the saloon is a social convenience, if not a necessity.

Obviously the saloon-keeper must be given a square deal, the saloon-policy of a community must be fixed and fair—if the business is to be conducted properly!

A Catechism on Blindness

Prince A. Morrow, M. D.

New York

The conversation between the layman and the physician turned on the wonderful work now being done for ameliorating the condition of the blind; the munificent donations made by state, municipal, and private charities for providing homes and institutions, and the improved facilities for the education of blind children. The doctor quoted the prophecy of Helen Keller: "When we rightly understand our bodies and our responsibilities toward unborn generations, the institutions for defectives which are now our pride will become terrible monuments to our ignorance and the needless misery we once endured."

Layman—Do you mean to say that the terrible affliction of blindness is preventable?

Doctor—Fully one-third of all blindness is avoidable.

Layman—What about the blindness of babies? These cases always seemed to me the most pathetic.

Doctor—These are the needless cases. The disease which causes blindness in infancy is preventable in practically all cases.

Layman—What is this disease?

Doctor—It is an inflammation of the eyes termed ophthalmia of the newborn.

Layman—Is it a frequent cause of blindness?

Doctor—It is the most common cause. Investigation shows that one in every three of the pupils of the New York City Institute for the Blind was blinded in infancy from this cause; of the sixteen inmates of the Sunshine Home in Brooklyn, all but three—or possibly two—lost their sight from ophthalmia; in the New York State Home for the Blind, in twenty-six per cent of the inmates, the eyes were lost from this disease. The proportion is even higher in other institutions.

Layman—Has science discovered no cure for this disease?

Doctor—An instillation of nitrate of silver solution in the eyes of the child is the most efficacious remedy. If this solution is promptly and skillfully employed, with proper precautions, it may save the sight.

Layman—Why is this not done in every case? If, as you say, this blindness is preventable, why is it not prevented? Is not the medical profession responsible for this needless destruction of human eyes?

Doctor—Such is the impression that many of the laity seem to entertain, but it is entirely wrong. The Credé method, as it is termed, is by no means infallible. Fully one-half of the cases of childbirth in this country are attended by midwives, many of them ignorant and utterly incompetent to use this powerful remedy, which, in unskillful hands may do much harm.

Layman—Do not the health authori-

ties interest themselves in the prevention of this preventable disease?

Doctor—The Sanitary Code of New York City contains a provision requiring the report of every case of this disease within twenty-four hours, but it is not enforced; it is practically a dead letter.

Layman—Am I to understand that while the ophthalmia which blinds children is preventable, the measures now employed fail to prevent? What is the explanation of this failure.

Doctor—They endeavor to correct the effects while ignoring the chief cause. All rational methods of prevention are based upon the correction of the cause of disease and its mode of spread.

Layman—What is the cause of ophthalmia of the newborn?

Doctor—The causal agent of the ophthalmia which blots out the eyes of babies, in probably eighty per cent of the cases, is a specific germ. There are other organisms which produce inflammation of the eyes, but this is usually of a milder type and rarely affects the integrity of vision.

Layman—How is the disease communicated?

Doctor—Like other germ diseases it is spread by contact from one individual to another. The germ of specific ophthalmia is conveyed from the mother to the child in the process of birth.

Layman—Has this been demonstrated beyond question?

Doctor—In a large proportion of cases, the specific germ may be identified in the mother, and in the purulent secretions from the eyes of the child.

Layman—Surely this germ does not normally exist in women; how does the mother get it?

Doctor—It is commonly communicated to her by the husband.

Layman—This is but a step in tracing its origin. How and from what source does the husband get it?

Doctor—He has contracted it in licentious relations either before or after marriage.

Layman—When the causes are examined into, the father is chiefly responsible for blinding his child?

Doctor—Since he introduces the infection he is responsible for the results. The cruellest link in this chain of consequences is the mother's innocent agency. She is made the passive, unconscious medium of instilling into the eyes of her newborn babe a virulent poison which extinguishes its sight.

Layman—But, doctor, it is scarcely conceivable that a man would give a disease to his wife which puts out the eyes of his own child.

Doctor—He does it ignorantly. In most cases he is ignorant that he is the bearer of contagion; especially is he ignorant of this, and other still more terrible consequences to his wife and children, which come from infection in marriage.

Layman—But, surely, nothing can be worse than blindness. What are these other consequences?

Doctor—In point of frequency, the risk to the eyes of the child from this infection is the least significant; the consequences referred to consist in the dangers to the health and life of the wife and mother from infection. This specific germ causes a large percentage of sterility; eighty per cent of all inflammatory diseases peculiar to women; seventy-five per cent of all the operations performed upon the maternal organs to save their lives; often, lifelong invalidism.

Layman—How can these abuses toward the innocent and helpless members of society be possible and the mass of humane people in this country remain indifferent to their significance?

Doctor—The indifference is a consequence of ignorance.

Layman—But the doctor knows these facts, why does he not tell?

Doctor—It is not altogether the fault of the doctor. His professional code does not, for example, permit him to tell the mother that her child has been blinded by an infection received from her husband; besides, it would do no good, as the harm has already been done. The professional secret does not, however, extend to the collectivity. The knowledge which might prevent these social catastrophes must come through general enlightenment.

Layman—Why does not the medical profession enlighten the general public? Is not its silence positively culpable, in view of the important interests involved?

Doctor—The medical profession is perfectly willing to share its knowledge, but it cannot reach the public to any effective extent; the channels of communication which might serve for this enlightenment are effectively closed by social tradition.

Layman—What is the basis of this social tradition?

Doctor—It is a sentiment compounded of ignorance, false shame, and prudery.

Layman—But are not the eyes of children, the health and lives of wives and mothers of more value than mere sentiment?

Doctor—Social tradition, has often a force far superior to its merits. Through force of this tradition, society shuts its eyes to the existence of these evils; it turns a deaf ear to the saving knowledge which might prevent them; those who control the educational agencies are dumb to the mention of these social infections.

Layman—It would appear then, that in these matters which vitally concern the health and lives of helpless women and children, the public is not only blind but deaf and dumb.

Doctor—Such would seem to be the logical conclusion.

Layman—Is there no way of breaking with this policy of silence and concealment?

Doctor—The American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis which was organized in this city some three years ago for the prevention of social diseases has directed its efforts chiefly toward education of the public as to the extent, dangers and modes of spread of this class of infections. It aims to serve as a medium of communication between the medical profession and the public—a center for the diffusion of this enlightenment. This educative work has been carried on chiefly through educational pamphlets, leaflets, lectures, etc. Branch societies or societies with similar aims and purposes have been organized in various other cities.

National and Social Studies

Reviewed by James Luby
Editorial Department New York "Sun"

How could a book, nine-tenths of which consists of fault-finding, be anything but depressing? How could a book of nearly 600 pages, in which hardly ten pages are devoted to constructive suggestion be anything but discouraging? This is the sort of work we have in Frederic Harrison's *National and Social Studies*.¹ It is perfectly well informed; it is admirably argued throughout; the style is luminous, almost brilliant; you never grow wearied, swimming through the easy pages; but the residual effect is disappointment. The reader cannot escape a sense of futility, when he has turned over the last page.

It is one of the oddest of books in conception and structure. Mr. Harrison has selected for republication seventeen of those vivid controversial productions, which have placed him in an honorable rank among contemporary British essayists,—eleven upon national and six upon social problems,—he has written thirty-one pages of preliminary matter to indicate a consistent line of thought in them, and then he has launched them upon the world as "an appeal to international morality and a plea for social regeneration." Well, you ask, what is so odd about that? Who has not done the same thing? What about Macaulay and Froude—and Chesterton? The point is that other collectors of occasional productions have either chosen to preserve essays which, though published in periodicals, are essentially monographs dealing with permanent topics in a permanent way, or else they have put their passing thoughts into book form while the subject matter itself was transitional. Mr. Harrison has dug up out of the past the views which he entertained at various times, some as far back as 1860 and with one exception none more recent than 1891, views upon matters still in transaction when he wrote about them, and he has placed these views anew before the thinking world without change of form

¹ *National and Social Studies*, by Frederic Harrison, New York, 1908. Pp. XXXI and 450. Price \$1.75. This book can be obtained at publishers' price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

or substance—barring some condensation of one essay—for no better reason than that he still thinks they were correctly held and in his present judgment the course of events has justified or will justify them. If Mr. Harrison's benevolence of intent were not an established condition, one might almost think that literary vanity was the motive power behind the republication, *i. e.*, the desire to prove what a remarkably good guesser he was.

The eleven essays on National Problems are reprints from the *Fortnightly Review*, various London daily newspapers and certain lectures and addresses. They deal at considerable length with the political aspects of the Franco-German war and the unification of Italy, also with certain of England's excursions in the field of imperialism—the Afghan campaign of 1879, the Egyptian expedition, and the Boer war. They are hot tempered if not ill-tempered; they frequently give the impression of hedging on general principles to the verge of downright inconsistency; and the final lesson, if any can be deduced from them, is that narrow selfishness is the first if not the only duty of the Briton. Thus we find the writer in one place finding fault with the government because it did not interfere "at any cost" to prevent the spoilation of France by Prince Bismarck, and again he is discovered bewailing any interference on the part of England to remedy abuses of semi-savage rule in any part of the world—in Egypt, for instance, or in the Balkans. In numerous places he inveighs against militarism with all the strength of language at his disposal, and again he asserts himself a strenuous advocate of a strong fleet and a strongish army for Great Britain, protesting against the fatuousness which would even suggest disarmament. It would be impossible to explain the contradictions which are encountered on almost every page were it not that the author gives the clue himself frankly and naively in the advancement of national self-interest,—it amounts to this—as the only motive worth considering. Thus, his indignation over the five millions and the ravished provinces is not

because of the abstract wrong of such national looting, not because of the cruelty to France which he sometimes loves and sometimes loaths, but because he foresaw, back in 1870 and 1871, the danger that would menace England in 1908 from German naval expansion and to do him justice, he did see it. His abhorrence of civilizing interferences in barbarous regions—the thing that Mr. Kipling has condensed for us in the expression "The Whiteman's Burden"—is due to nothing more or less than the circumstance that the creation of a scattered and more or less inchoate empire makes the defence of the "Tight Little Island" a difficult and uncertain problem.

Mr. Harrison ardently desires the regeneration of the lower strata of society—of all society in fact. We know it from his other writings and from his whole career. The earnestness of his desire shines out in all parts of this book. But apparently he thinks it is a case of every nation for itself. If his treatment of national problems means anything, it means this: Britain should refuse to become "bigger"—how he hates the word!—and should keep out of enterprises of promiscuous benevolence, in order that she may devote herself to her own social evolution without fear of molestation from Germany.

In the half of the book devoted to social topics, Mr. Harrison discusses the limits of political economy, trades unionism, co-operation, communism, land nationalization and socialism. Trades-unionism evidently enjoys his hearty approval and, being and working as he portrays it, it would have the approval of every man who breathes the air of 1908 and not of some bygone generation. The weak spot in his presentation is that he ignores all the faults that the union system has developed and paints only its smiling aspect. The great glory of the author is that as far back as 1865 he was able to take a twentieth century view of a much disputed proposition. The man is, or was far sighted to the extent of being prophetic.

Withal, he sees that trades-unions have their limit as engines of social re-

generation. But he is kinder to them than to any of the other systems he discusses. The opponent of Henry George's theories or of co-operation or of any of the current brands of socialism may revel in a moment of pure joy by perusing the brief pages in which Mr. Harrison picks these topics to pieces, holding up to inspection in the cold light of clear logic and transparent English the weakness, the insufficiency, the impracticability of each in turn. Perhaps his analysis might not effect a change of heart in an enthusiastic devotee of George or Karl Marx, but to the mind leaning the other way, nay even to the impartial mind, he speaks with a certain finality. All this demolition of popular "panaceas" for the sickness of the social body is none the less effective because he concedes something to each in respect of practical value or of inspiration. Indeed this is what makes his final charge upon each so effective.

Of course the object of the whole attack is to clear the way for the cult of Positivism, the religio-sociological program of Auguste Comte. Anybody acquainted with the story of Mr. Harrison's career, would know this was a foregone conclusion. The disappointment is that there is so little about it,—in the whole book hardly ten pages; at the end, scant two. Thus we are deprived of the pleasure of seeing how this remarkable dialectician would present his own cure-all for "the ills that flesh is heir to" in contrast with the ones he had so unsparingly discredited. It would be curious and interesting to note how his clear seeing mind, even in the mood of destructive criticism, would avoid seeing, or would see in a favorable light the impossibilities, the inconsistencies, the demoralizing tendencies of his own system, which have been so fatally demonstrated by other hands.

Just here, it only remains to point out by way of conclusion that in the large sense the book refutes itself. While clearing the ground for Positivism to take hold of the great task of the ages, it quite effectively establishes the limitation of Positivism. In other words the strain of intense materialism, of absolute worldliness, which animates these essays, is a characteristic Positivist in-

spiration; it is an expression of the gospel of the merely human, the ethic of the merely temporary.

By the way, on page 104, this sentence occurs: "Neither Thiers, nor Grevy, nor any of the elder statesmen have ever stood forth as direct representatives of the people." There are other slips, too. Is the writing of grammatical English an extinct practice?

The Easy Chair

Arthur P. Kellogg

Near the end of the book, with the Editor's Study, the funny men in small type, and the advertiser "facing last reading" for company, William Dean Howells sits back in the Editor's Easy Chair of *Harper's Monthly Magazine*, contentedly commenting on persons and things—but mostly on types of men and women—as they pass by. This Easy Chair, one must believe, rocks just a bit, so very comfortable is its occupant; not with the long free swing of the willow rocker on a summer veranda, but equally far removed from the stiff uprightness of desk and study chairs. Quite characteristically it turns its back full on the substantial front door of the Editor's Study. Not a chair this to make one sit up and think out carefully what he is saying.

In a recent *Harper's* Mr. Howells gives in dialogue form—the familiar He and She conversing—what must be taken as a statement of the motives of some of those who are financial supporters of charity work. He confesses that He has given the matter a good deal of thought, while She for a time went to board meetings and was a visitor. "I had the sight of the poor creatures continually before my eyes, and after I had visited them a few times I had the smell of them in my nostrils," She says. She had no peace; She must take care of all the sufferers, "but when I stopped they seemed to take care of themselves; at least they did for all I knew, and the whole thing went out of my mind." But the newspapers full of the rent strike and of the unemployed clamoring to shovel away snow, brought it all back and She just knew She should not sleep a wink that night. That would do her good,

though there was nothing in it for them, She acknowledged.

That brings up the great question of what to do about it, on which He has much to say. "You know how people do when they are trying to do good to others, though not feeling their own good good enough. They select some class of sufferers and then they organize. They create themselves presidents, or at least secretaries, and they worry people of prominence into being vice-presidents upon the understanding that no manner

their friends or their acquaintance, or their fellow beings. The people who praise her never think of her involuntary, her reluctant agents, on whom she inflicts the blessing of paying with their purses and persons, and whose consciences she soothes through the sense of their good deeds."

He disclaims any fun-making in it. "It's a very serious matter all around. But it's only a part of the general disability of our economic system."

He and She figure that in spite of



THE BREAD LINE

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of service shall be asked of them; they make the least obnoxious banker, the least guilty capitalist, their treasurer, and then they commence sending out circulars to the city directory at large, and making personal appeals in their own handwriting to their friends and acquaintance for the sockless, or the shoeless, or the overcoatless, or the one-legged or one-eyed, or the hard of hearing. Any sort of home, or refuge, or exile, or cure will serve as an outlet for the charitable energies of the foundress: you must allow that it is mostly women who wish to befriend the friendless at the expense of

their relatively small incomes, they are rich as compared with most of us, and that therefore they are in a position to practice the philosophy of the rich in respect to the poor. He expounds the philosophy, examining first what the emotion of it really is,—“Is it pity for the poor, or is it pity for ourselves? Is it generosity or selfishness? I should say that if we were sorry for them, it was no harm to be sorry for ourselves too. We are sorry because we put ourselves in their place—and it's uncomfortable. We can't go and get everybody out of misery. There is too much of it

and too many of them. Nobody understands this better than the rich. They realize that if they gave ever so little to each there wouldn't be enough to go around; and they distinguish, they compromise. That is, they employ intelligent persons, male or female, cleric or laic, to distinguish for them. This gives work, and is a good thing in itself, and it restricts beneficence to the deserving. Not all the deserving are benefited; there are too many, even of them; but the undeserving are found out and eliminated. That is very good too; when a man has to be left hungry and houseless, it is pleasant to know that he does not merit a meal or a roof."

What the rich are really trying to do, He holds, is "to get rid of that distressing sense of fulness which seems to come from any sort of superfluity, by sharing it with those who don't know how bad it is." Charity balls and bazaars are a device for doing it, but the real panacea, "the remedy I use for misery when the

case is desperate," He confesses, is "some good round piece of self-indulgence." When He feels desperate from a realization of the number of hungry people in New York, He eats the very best dinner to be had, "and it is astounding how comfortable everybody is after it." When this does not work, He runs away, Tampa or Bermuda or somewhere, and "when you come home, it is generally toward spring, and misery isn't so very miserable in mild weather." As a last resort, He practices some piece of utter extravagance which enables Him "to harden my heart with a good reason—haven't got the money."

After all of which, fitting in neatly at the very bottom of the last of the four pages which Mr. Howells must always fill exactly:

"She went to the bell. 'If you're going to stay, you'll certainly want some tea.'

"'Yes, I shall. There's nothing clears the moral atmosphere like tea.'"

Communications

THE OTHER SIDE OF TAG DAY

TO THE EDITOR:

The very interesting article on Tag Day in Philadelphia which appeared in your number for July 4 has caused me again to consider one side of the question that seems to be raised, which I do not think should be passed entirely unnoticed.

I do not wish for one moment to criticize the public spirited citizens who are trying to secure suitable playground facilities for Philadelphia children. It is hard enough to arouse our community to this great need, but the point I wish to make is, that there is very serious danger in teaching large numbers of small children (as well as those of older years), such very striking lessons in the advantages of mendicancy as the tag day experience must necessarily have taught. My own observations were confined in the vicinity of Broad street station, the terminal of the Pennsylvania Railroad, and the busiest part of the commercial center of the city, and certainly the schooling of the tag sellers was calculated to increase the corps of professional beggars rather than otherwise. The whole manner of most of those who offered a tag to me was that of the professional street beggar and the general character and appearance of the individuals were such as to arouse a very strong suspicion that very little of the money contributed would ever reach the coffers of the Playground Association.

Now it may be that the \$20,000 raised will do more good than the demoralizing influence on many of the young collectors, but it seems to me it would be well for anyone who is considering this method of raising money, to seriously weigh the indirect influence upon the characters of those who are encouraged to take part in such an undertaking.

GEORGE VAUX, JR.

A NEW IDEA IN PUBLIC BATHS

TO THE EDITOR:

At the Congestion Exhibition of last spring there was a photograph of children being given a shower bath with a hose on the street in New York.

Why could this not be done often and everywhere?

It seems to me a really brilliant invention. Flushing the streets is good but flushing off the youngsters themselves is still better.

The plan is inexpensive, involves no plant, and no preparation or delay and is capable of indefinite multiplication.

I wish that in all our cities it might be arranged and made known that on hot days any children properly dressed could have a shower at certain corners at certain hours, say morning and evening. The bath line might rival the bread line.

I understand that the plan is at least under consideration in Boston.

EMILY G. BALCH.

Social Forces

By the Editor

A SALOON COMMISSION

Collier's proposes the creation of a voluntary saloon commission, somewhat after the plan of the Committee of Fifty, to work out suggestions for the next steps in the triumphant anti-saloon crusade. Referring to the activity of public opinion in many sections and to the signs of relenting on the part of the brewers—like ice in April—the popular national weekly says that a point has now been reached where public opinion needs guidance. The crucial problems are: How shall we decrease the tendency to lawlessness in the average saloon? How shall we decrease the number of saloons? What is the wisest form of legislation for Sunday sale? How shall the police, the politicians and the liquor dealers be pulled apart? *Collier's* thinks that with some of these questions the brewers can help but not with all, and, with a view to the education of the public, proposes that for New York state some such group of men as the following should meet and try their hand at these immediate practical problems:

Julius Liebmann, president of the United States Brewers' Association. George William Alger, lawyer and author. Robert W. de Forest, president of the Charity Organization Society. John P. Peters, chairman of the Committee of Fourteen. Edward T. Devine, professor of social economy in Columbia University. Thomas Byrnes, former head of the Detective Bureau and ex-chief of police. Hugh F. Fox, secretary of the United States Brewers' Association.

Notwithstanding the fact that the names of the editor of this journal and the chairman of its publication committee appear in the proposed imaginary commission, we feel at liberty to consider the plan on its merits; and, waiving entirely the question of personnel, we are bound to say that the suggestion strikes us most favorably. The excellent scientific work of the Committee of Fifty in its investigations of the economic, legislative, and physiological aspects of the liquor problem, the vigorous propaganda of the W. C. T. U., the Anti-Saloon League and other distinctively temperance organizations, the political activity of prohibitionists, and the slower but more fundamental results of the persistent teaching in the elementary schools, have had a cumulative, and in some particulars a wholesome supplementary or even corrective effect. Extreme views have been moderated, but indifference has also been quenched in a consuming fire of indignation and disgust. Pity for the family of the drunkard has been largely replaced, as a motive in the temperance movement, by a cool-headed appreciation of the real strength of the saloon in its commercial and political elements. Less

is heard about the sin and more about the lawlessness of the saloon. No doubt sin is more reprehensible, but crime can be reached by grand juries; and interests which are essentially and persistently vicious, corrupting and anti-social can and must in one way or another be brought under social control. This we believe to be the genuine significance of the present extraordinary anti-saloon movement.

The attempt to regulate window screens, the hours of sale, the age of purchasers, the purity of liquors, the distance of saloons from churches and schools, Sunday closing, and the precise relation of saloons to the hotel business and to prostitution, is becoming very burdensome. The cost of all this complicated regulation of a powerful and slippery enemy of society is very great and the annoyance of it is even greater. Therefore, since the saloon thus fights and slips through our fingers to fight again at every turn, let us once for all make an end of it. So reason some millions of people and so at last from their own point of view are the brewers and distillers beginning to reason—not, perhaps, from choice and conviction, but from necessity and a perception of the trend of the times. If the saloon can cease to be lawless, if it can voluntarily divorce itself from vice and from those specific evils which have been the objective of the regulative legislation, then perhaps the saloon can be saved. One of our religious contemporaries sarcastically observes that it is a case of “when the devil is sick, the devil a saint would be.” We do not share this unfavorable opinion of the sincerity of the reforming element in the Brewers’ Association. We await with every desire to appreciate to the full the results of their efforts. It will be a long time before the saloon is abolished in New York or Chicago and there is every reason for watching with expectant sympathy the results of the present courageous efforts, outlined in our columns last week by Hugh F. Fox, to deal from higher up with the saloon problem.

In order to get the most from this situation, and in order that there may be ample assurance that the reforms are substantial and not illusory, such a voluntary commission as is proposed by *Collier's* would be very timely. The public is in no temper to be fooled, even though it is very ready to consider temporary expedients, genuine partial remedies while waiting and preparing for more radical measures. If the saloon commission can help to crystallize public opinion in regard to the questions which should be decided this year and next in communities which cannot or will not dispense entirely with saloons in these two years it will serve an exceedingly useful purpose, quite distinct from that of any of the existing agencies for dealing with the grave evils of intemperance.

In a longer view the most encouraging feature of the entire temperance movement is the increasing influence of the economic factors. If the saloon commission should be created, it may well consider the possibility of bringing these influences even more directly and rapidly to bear on the situation. If abstinence and sobriety make for greater industrial efficiency, a better utilization of our economic resources, and a more rational standard of living, then the irresistible forces of nature and of human society are on their side and will prevail. Some educational propaganda in which such considerations as these are emphasized, might become a serious element in the temperance crusade.

CHARITIES

AND The Commons

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND THE PLAY CONGRESS

The second annual Congress of the Playground Association of America promises to draw a large number of those interested in public playgrounds to New York, September 8-12, and to prove one of the largest gatherings of public officials ever held in America. The choice of Mayor McClellan as honorary president of the congress has made it possible to send letters of invitation over his signature to the mayors of all cities of more than 10,000 population. This is in line with the election of President Roosevelt as honorary president of the association, and is part and parcel of a rounded scheme of publicity embracing one summer a gathering of experts in connection with the picturesque Chicago play festival, in the winter a dinner at the Waldorf-Astoria with speeches by the Duchess of Marlborough and Mrs. Humphry Ward, a trip across the continent by Lee F. Hanmer, the field secretary, the use of a professional publicity bureau as a wicket gate through the walls set up by newspapers against the "free notice" claimant, and now a second big congress which should stamp the play idea strongly on the programs of many cities. The mayors of Boston, Kansas City, Mo.; Waltham, Mass.; Minneapolis, Minn.; Paterson, N. J.; Jersey City, N. J.; Worcester, Mass., and Hartford, Conn., have accepted Mayor McClellan's invita-

tion to attend, and from some cities there will be representatives of appropriate municipal departments. Superintendents of schools, too, have been urged to attend, as well as all those social and civic enthusiasts whose working programs give large space to the subject of supervised play.

As a further means of arousing interest, the Playground Association is forming local committees in as

many cities as possible. These committees will help in securing members to attend the congress, to secure playground sermons or addresses before all organizations holding meetings on the Sunday before the congress and the reporting of them in the newspapers. Such help is being asked of the members of the association, officers of the Y. M. C. A., charity organization societies, members of the American Physical Education Association, women's

clubs and superintendents of schools. The meetings will be held in the American Museum of Natural History.

There will be held a great harvest festival which will show how an urban or a rural community can celebrate an occasion with social spirit, beauty and intelligence, as well as with American enthusiasm, similar to the Chicago Play Festival described in this issue.

The program of the congress will consist of special conferences on playground equipment, playground legislation, normal courses on play for preparation of

CONGRESS

SEPT. 8-12TH 1908



PLAYGROUND ASSO-
CIATION OF AMERICA

playground teachers, playgrounds for institutions, athletics for girls, games and play festivals for rural districts, athletics for boys, use of recreation piers and roof playgrounds, and story telling in the playgrounds; addresses on the relation of playgrounds to juvenile delinquency, the playground movement as a phase of social reform, what playgrounds can do for older girls, winter organizations of playgrounds, etc.; visits to public playgrounds under the Board of Education, the Park Department, and the Park and Playground Association; visits to public baths, and recreation piers; reports from standing committees of the association on the work of the past year and plans for the future; exhibitions of folk dancing, class athletics, athletic badge tests by children of the public schools closing with the play festival. Among the speakers will be Governor Charles E. Hughes of New York, Jacob A. Riis, Superintendent William H. Maxwell, Joseph Lee of Boston, and Dr Woods Hutchinson.

GEORGIA'S CHAIN GANG HELD UP TO THE LIGHT

On the heels of its hot discussion and positive position on the liquor question, the state of Georgia has turned its enthusiasm for reform into a new channel and is now taking stock of its convict system. A few weeks ago the Rev. John E. White of the Second Baptist Church of Atlanta preached a sermon on *The Cross and The Convict* which stirred the city. The *Atlanta Georgian* and other papers took it up, on a later Sunday ministers all over the state preached in a vein similar to Mr. White's, and now the fight is on in the Legislature. The Democratic state convention embodied in its platform a plank declaring that the state prison policy should be for the reform and education of the convict and not for profit making.

Georgia's chain gang is a firmly established institution. In so far as it provides healthy out-of-door labor for felons, and particularly for Negroes, it is preferable in many ways to penitentiaries. But into it have grown abuses. Convicts are leased to farmers and con-

tractors, probably the greater number going to turpentine camps remote from outside influence. Unsanitary conditions, poor food, brutality, practical peonage, have been charged in the legislative debates. Were these true of only a few camps,—as is by no means admitted,—the state would still stand charged with failure to make any effort toward reformation or education. Its prisoners are regarded solely as bound laborers.

Some years ago a convict was leased for seven dollars a year, and at least one great Georgia fortune was built up as a result. Later, competitive bids were demanded, and now the convicts are leased at a price which nets the state treasury \$120 a year for each man. The profit has tended to the imposing of long sentences, as, for instance, in the case of a man convicted of the theft of small sums from a number of people, sent to the chain-gang for fifteen years. It is a temptation to a judge to go before his constituents with a record of many and long sentences because the profits resulting from them keep down the tax rate; it is difficult to propose a change for fear of popular disapproval of a possible rise in taxes; penalties at the camp are used cumulatively to lengthen sentences; the whole trend of the system is for the state to become a sharp bargainer and an inflexible taskmaster.

That there is a feeling of dissatisfaction with the system was shown by a recent change substituting state guards for guards hired by employers; and by the changes following the meeting in Atlanta in 1903 of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. A visit to the city stockade and a frank discussion by the conference led to reforms in the stockade and to the removal of juvenile delinquents to a reformatory. The state saw its duty toward its boys; it bids fair now to recognize its duty toward men. There is in Georgia a sureness of public opinion once aroused, as in the temperance movement, which is surprising to more phlegmatic communities. Mr. White and the other ministers of the state have underwritten the arousing. The fault for Georgia's disgrace in treating the convict as an asset rather than a

liability, as a benefit rather than a burden, must in the last analysis be with the pulpit and the pew, Mr. White said. The pulpit and the pew are discharging the duties of citizenship contrary to the principles enunciated upon the cross. "We have the pulpit started all over Georgia. That's what the pulpit is for—the efficient pulpit."

It is proposed to substitute road building by convicts, the state supervising the work itself. In this Georgia may well examine into the system of state and local road work in Virginia,—a system substituted not long ago for the leasing of convicts,—which was described in detail both in its social and economic aspects, at the national conference in May in Richmond.

SANITARY CONDITIONS ? **"THERE ARE NONE"**

With walls that have not been calcimined or painted for years, piles of rubbish and filth, unwashed windows, faulty plumbing, unmended fences, crowding, insufficient janitor service and failure to separate adequately the toilets used by boys and girls, the public schools of San Francisco present a sorry spectacle in a report made by the Women's Sanitation Committee to the Board of Education, which is in charge, and the Board of Supervisors, which makes school appropriations.

The report as written by the chairman, Mrs. A. W. Scott, and the chairman of the committee on schools, Miss Alice F. Griffith, takes up in detail the different buildings throughout the city. Temporary schools erected since the fire are in urgent need of certain repairs and facilities, but the system of plumbing in use in them is far more sanitary than that in the majority of permanent schools. It is the latter, many of them old buildings, a large majority of them in very bad shape, upon which the committee concentrates its criticism and for which it demands appropriations for adequate repairs and equipment. As result of the report the Board of Education called the school principals sharply to account and a thorough housecleaning was undertaken during the spring vacation.

The report states that in a majority of the schools the walls have not been calcimined for years—"in many of them not within the memory of the principals." This is particularly significant when it is remembered that many of them were used after the earthquake and fire for relief purposes. Troops and police and refugees were quartered in them and in some children with contagious diseases were housed. Others were used for storing old clothes. And when the schools opened once more, the children of the city were sent back into these buildings with no more effective cleaning than that done by the janitors. Some rooms are eyesores with falling plaster and absolute filth.

The plumbing in most of the schools is contrary to all the health ordinances and plumbing laws of the city. Six in all are found to have proper sanitary toilets. In seven schools "the conditions are impossible to describe." A member of the women's committee, who visited a high school, in reporting under the head of "sanitary conditions," wrote, "There are none." The yards and floors of toilets are quite largely made of planking.

The Board of Education contemplates building outside fireproof stairways on twenty-four buildings at an estimated cost of \$72,000. "It would seem that in all new school buildings the inside stairways should also be of fireproof construction," is the mild comment of the report on this feature.

The janitor service in many of the schools is inefficient and this, the report holds, is due mainly to the rules of the Board of Education which does not provide for direct oversight of janitors and sets up a division of authority which finds a direct result in lax methods. "The floors cannot be really clean when they are scrubbed only four times a year; windows clean when they are washed only when required; nor toilets free from the danger of carrying infection when no rigid instructions are given for constant scrubbing and disinfection," says the report.

It is urged that medical inspection be supplemented by the daily visits of school nurses and this the Board of Health

stands willing to do as soon as funds are provided. The nurses, it is pointed out, will not only give the manifold useful service characteristic of them, but will act as sanitary inspectors as well.

No permanent improvement can be hoped for, the report says, until the schools have been thoroughly repaired and put in a reasonably good sanitary condition. The health and morals of 39,474 children are involved. A certain degree of improvement is assured by the mere fact of so thorough-going and practical a report by intelligent women; that the public bodies responsible must eventually carry out all reasonable suggestions of improvement may be anticipated from one sentence in the closing paragraphs of the report: "The work of this committee will continue on lines of periodical inspection."

SUMMER SESSION OF THE NEW YORK SCHOOL

This year's summer session has been the most successful in the history of the New York School of Philanthropy. Seventy-eight students, sixty-two of whom were women and sixteen men, have been enrolled. The attendance at the lectures has been so large that the seating capacity of the school-room has been taxed to its utmost. In addition to the scheduled lectures, from two to five special lectures and conferences have been held every week and some fifteen visits made to the leading institutions in or near New York city. By the arrangement for special conferences the class has been privileged to discuss at length some of the important movements of the day with Dr. Devine, Dr. Carstens, Dr. Lindsay, Miss Zilpha Smith and Mrs. M. P. Falconer.

The growth of the school, together with the change in its personnel and the gradual elimination of untrained workers, who are now advised to take the full year's course, has made the summer session a normal class rather than a training school for beginners.

Nothing, perhaps, is more interesting than the extent to which school-teachers, ministers and nurses, who have done work not hitherto considered as charitable, are taking advantage of the op-

portunity to broaden their knowledge of the movements for social betterment. This may doubtless be taken as an indication of the growth of the social spirit in the community. The great majority of this summer's class have been in actual service.

The school is again under deep obligations to the managing boards and executive staffs of the various institutions whose hospitality has been extended to the students. The class has shown its appreciation of the work done by raising two scholarships for the session next summer.

THE DEATH OF MRS. E. A. McCUTCHEON

For the second time within six months the New York Charity Organization Society is called upon to mourn the loss of a member of its old guard. Mrs. E. A. McCutcheon, who died of lingering typhoid fever at her home in Tarrytown on Monday, July 20, had been for seventeen years a district agent of the society, serving during the whole of this time on the lower West Side in what is now known as Greenwich District.

Mrs. McCutcheon had strongly marked personal characteristics, one of which was an exceptional power of inspiring loyalty and affection. Charm of manner was combined in her with unfailing dignity and a certain reserve which concealed a capacity for heroism, and for carrying uncomplainingly burdens of which even her intimate associates knew little or nothing. She had a capacity also for indignation which was often called into exercise on behalf of her "cases." She was always their vigorous champion and their warm friend. Trained in the old school—the stern and excellent school of Chalmers and Mrs. Lowell—she was inclined to look with dismay on what seemed to her the sentimental coddling of immigrants by settlement workers and church visitors, and especially on the rising tide of Italian dependence in her own district which she attributed mainly to a lax administration of the immigration laws and too lavish relief for the families of idle, able bodied men.

She was keen, however, to appreciate

the advantage of liberal relief in what appeared to her suitable cases: the helpless aged, or the sick, or those who could be trained to self-help. If she was not among the first to sympathize with the idea that children of hard working mothers should be kept at school at fourteen and prevented from earning anything even out of school hours, she was nevertheless one of the first to seek industrial training for girls or boys when this would increase their earning power and to keep in the country or sanatorium for an indefinite period a patient for whom there was a chance of recovery.

Staunch in her convictions, faithful in the performance of her duties, considerate of her associates and assistants, loyal to her charges, remembering their needs and protecting their interests, gracious in her dealings with fellow-men; interested in all that would contribute to the welfare of her community, Mrs. McCutcheon has earned a place which she will long hold in the affections and in the respect of those who worked with her and of those for whom she gave her seventeen years of unremitting and devoted service.

Labor Planks Rejected at Chicago, Adopted at Denver

Graham Taylor

When the labor planks which had been rejected by the Republican Resolutions' Committee at Chicago were presented to the convention itself by the Wisconsin representatives, they were voted down almost unanimously with the cry from the floor, "Take it to Denver." This gratuitous advice proved to be more effective as a prophecy than as persiflage. For it was promptly and vigorously fulfilled. Every plank which the Federation of Labor officials lost at Chicago they took to Denver. And the Denver convention took all they brought and built them into the platform. The Democratic party thus definitely concedes the following demands of labor which were denied by the Republicans. As they appear in the platform they are almost identical

with what Mr. Gompers demanded in person and in print at Chicago, varying very slightly in phrase from his formulation. They pledge the Democratic party "to the enactment of a law by Congress, as far as the federal jurisdiction extends, for a general employers' liability act, covering injury to body or loss of life to employes"; to "the eight hour day on all government work"; to "the enactment of a law creating a department of labor, represented separately in the president's cabinet, which department shall include the subject of mines and mining"; to "no abridgment of the right of wage earners and producers to organize for the protection of wages and the improvement of labor conditions, to the end that such labor organizations and their members should not be regarded as illegal combinations in restraint of trade."

Regarding the issue over the injunction procedure of the courts, which was the main contention both at Chicago and Denver and will be between the parties throughout the campaign, there is something to compare and more to contrast in their platforms. They are perhaps equally emphatic in maintaining the authority and dignity of the courts, and in claiming the need in their procedure either of more accurate definition or a modification of the present law. The Democratic platform, however, includes what the Republican omits, "that injunctions should not be issued in any case in which injunctions would not issue if no industrial dispute were involved." On the other hand the Republican platform insists "that no injunction or temporary restraining order should be issued without notice, except where irreparable injury would result from delay, in which case a speedy hearing thereafter should be granted." The omission from the Democratic platform of a declaration for due notice to be given by the courts of their intention to issue an injunction is resented by the officers of the railway unions. But on the whole the Democratic platform has so far been received with far greater satisfaction by the officials of organized labor, but the labor press and the rank and file have yet to

be heard from. The Socialists, of course, belittle and ridicule any hope of getting help for labor from any party or candidates except their own, and Mr. Debs is predicting the election of Mr. Taft, all to prevent votes from being diverted to the Bryan ticket from their own "class conscious" demand for the "co-operative commonwealth." There are indications, however, of greater unanimity and determination in the support of the Democratic candidates, on account of the stand taken by the party for labor's attitude toward this injunction issue, than have ever been seen in any other presidential campaign. Organized labor has certainly entered into party politics more avowedly and unitedly than ever before in the history of American labor and politics. The issue on industrial questions is more clear-cut and squarely before the American people than it ever has been.

The challenge to materialize the "labor vote," flung down by the Manufacturers' Association in their taunt at the Chicago convention over the failure of labor to accomplish results on election day, is likely to be accepted all the more boldly and eagerly because of the class conflict thus foolishly emphasized.

An Industrial Experiment for Unemployed Women

**Gertrude Barnum
New York**

The "ill wind" which blew up the recent financial panic has blown some little good into a small corner of one of the New York settlements. In an effort to supply work for unemployed girls and women, Helen Marot of the New York Woman's Trade Union League persuaded a generous supporter of Hartley House, Mrs. George Jenkins, to finance a plan for establishing a wardrobe repair shop, upon an eight-hour day and twelve-dollar wage basis. To-day the shop is promising to play an important part in testing the practicability of taking the mending, repairing and ordering of clothes out of the home and into well equipped shops where skilled workers can do, with ease and pleasure, what in-

competent and over-worked housewives now do with great waste and anxiety.

It has been claimed that this enterprise, if successful, will develop into a new skilled trade for women, and while this is not altogether true, it is partly so. There are already ladies' maids galore for the rich, and travelling menders and pressers and cleaners for the well-to-do, and even mending and altering shops for the many, tucked away in some large cities here and there, but so far the great majority of middle class women still struggle with these renovation and alteration duties, besides all the other sciences, arts and crafts in which they are supposed to excel. So that the ideas and principles of the wardrobe repair shop at Hartley House are still new to the feminine public in general; and the undertaking may well be looked upon as a philanthropy for the relief of the wives and sisters of the tattered and torn of the upper classes. Hereafter, tired mothers need no longer face alone the problem of making father's trousers fit William or doing over Aunt Maria's hoop skirt garments into sheath gowns for sister Sue.

"Who made your new trousers, Jimmy?" asks the Sunday school teacher.

"My mother, gol darn her," answers Jimmy.

But the days when maternal affection expressed itself hitched up behind and wrong side before may soon be past, along with the days when daughters cut both sleeves for the same arm, and failed to match the stripes.

A man never tries to remodel his silk hat into a visor outing cap for his son, or to make gaiters for his wife from the knees of his broadcloth trousers. He goes to the hatter for hats, to the neckwear maker for ties, to the tailor for overcoats. When he faces domestic problems he puts out the curtain making, patronizes the towel and supply company, employs professional window washers, and automatic suction cleaners, and turns over the catering to competent firms equipped with modern labor-saving machines and employing skilled workers. And the new Ship Shape Shop at Hartley House, in its successful wardrobe repairing, may help to convince women that if

they want a thing well done they must not do it themselves, but might much better turn it over to a trained specialist.

A Menace and a Remedy

J. Madison Taylor
Philadelphia

What causes of our present financial troubles are capable of definite amelioration or cure? There is one which is remediable by an improvement in our educational methods. It is well known, admitted, that our youth are not taught adequate respect for elders, esteem for constituted authority. Obedience is not demanded or enforced. Petty revolt, impatience of control, "back-talk" characterize the conduct of young persons in all ranks of life. Among the causes for this prevailing defect, so subversive of social and domestic cohesion, is the spirit of independence running riot, unchecked by parent or teacher. Each would shift the responsibility upon the other, hence it falls to the ground.

As a people we admire "spirit," initiative, aggressiveness, enterprise. We particularly commend acquisitiveness, infantile tradings and like enterprises. Our Sunday and other schools are frequently "addressed" by "successful men"; eminently worthy but of limited breadth, whose train of thought flows most readily in familiar channels, whose ideals are chiefly the swift acquirement of wealth. The burden of their song, their favorite topic is "be earnest and alert and you may succeed as I have done; from your present attitude of poverty you may rapidly achieve wealth. This position of advantage commands all things, it enables you to do much good, to bring you place, power, whereby you may endow churches, colleges, etc., etc."

On all sides the young person is urged to succeed on one or another material line. Our country offers endless opportunities, but they must be won by effort. All other objects are subordinated, mentioned and recommended of course, sometimes urgently, but the goal of affluence is vastly more in evidence. The customs of the countryside, the talk of the

fireside, the school, the church festival, all invite substantial progress toward financial certitude. Other desirable things are estimated overmuch in the light of purchasable commodities.

In older countries this tendency may be present but it is better safeguarded by tradition, by local and national ideals, customs, greater fixity of methods, less laxity in forms of upbringing. Where elasticity is less, diffusiveness is in safer channels.

A fact not generally known is that the proportion of defective children in every community is large, the elements of instability, of mental and moral backwardness are perilously great. Much of this is a mere excess of youthful prepotencies, cerebral protoplasm awaiting the formative effects of education, of training to make or mar the crude material. Yet there remains in a country like ours, inhabited by a complexity of racial elements, not yet become a stable entity, rather more than less of inherent deviation from normal standards, mental and moral, yet displaying little obvious physical shortcomings.

The schools are now becoming rapidly better inspected by competent physicians and experts in psychology. Classification, segregation, special educational facilities are being provided. There is thus revealed much that was lately not suspected. The vision of the teacher is becoming clarified, suitable opportunities are slowly being provided, not so much to correct incipient or curable defects, as to provide suitable channels of activity adapted to intrinsic potentialities. However, this is even now only the crude beginning. Fifty years ago much of what is now grudgingly admitted was unknown; if claimed it would have been frankly denied. Unhindered enjoyment of responsibility by mental and moral deviates, or the fewer who may be classified by the objectionable yet accurate term "degenerates," made possible a dangerous condition of affairs of which now we are reaping the damaging effects. The feverish competition for wealth stimulated those whose integrity was never stable or well balanced, who at no time enjoyed wise educational supervision,

authoritative domination, to get what they sought by any means in their power. Hence the genesis of the "undesirable citizen," an excellent name for a definite class. It cannot be denied that this element is not only large, far larger than we may be willing to admit, but a serious peril to national integrity.

This ingredient in the body politic, powerful often as individuals, even more so in aggregations, constitutes the material from which shrewd, far-seeing men make henchmen, obedient ward and district workers, unscrupulous doers of their wills. The moral sense is a delicate entity, readily occluded, requiring careful nurturing, molding, encouragement, wholesome direction. It only too swiftly dies by neglect. The whole atmosphere of our country being "to do the best you can for yourself and above all gain wealth," opens wide the portals of opportunity. If the individual be not wise, if he cannot see far, nor himself make promising combinations, he at least can become an earnest worker, under guidance of those who are and can plan, organize, gain concessions, weave nets wherein are caught the unwary. These "undesirable citizens" are usually well fitted to "hold down jobs" after they are suitably placed by "those at the front." As legislators they are invaluable to "take care of their friends." Self-interest makes them reliable. This feebleness of moral perception is not so much to be condemned as deplored; they never had much; it died in youth; it is gone. They are honest according to their light, *e. g.*, Richard Croker's definition of an honest man, "one who when bought will stay bought."

What is the remedy? Plainly to view things as they are, estimate the actualities, apply the remedies, sharpen our perceptions to "see what is there when the light is turned on."

There is no use in repining, in blaming those who have stemmed the tide of moral rottenness at which we have all hitherto been conniving, and profiting, directly or indirectly. Things may have "gone to hell" a bit, but it is only confusion; the hell was there all the time

only we did not choose to see it (we even may have owned shares in it).

What to do now? Why, obviously train our boys better, our girls too, they both are at fault. Put the educator of youth where he belongs, in the highest position of confidence and esteem. Help in all rational endeavors to make good citizens. The material is not the grown-ups, but the young child. Let us have parental co-operation with teachers, furnish the parents with primers on principles of fundamental subjects, morals, ideals, law, government, business, etc.

Get the parents interested in citizen-building, then with the help of the teachers we will achieve a race worthy of our destiny in which "undesirable citizens" will have no place or power.

Social Legislation in Kentucky

Bernard Flexner
Louisville

In addition to juvenile court, adult responsibility and compulsory education laws, which have been explained in this magazine, the General Assembly of Kentucky passed three other laws of interest to social workers: Through the efforts of George L. Sehon, the Kentucky Children's Home Society will receive annually from the state \$30,000 instead of \$15,000 as heretofore. The Kentucky Child Labor Association and the Consumers' League secured the passage of a new child labor law whose essential provisions are as follows:

Children under fourteen years of age may not be employed, during the term of the schools in the district wherein the child resides, "in any business or service" or at any time in or in connection with any factory, workshop, mine, mercantile establishment, store, business office, telegraph office, restaurant, hotel, apartment house, or in the distribution or transmission of merchandise or messages.

Children under sixteen years of age may not be employed for more than sixty hours a week or more than ten hours in any one day, or before seven o'clock in the morning or after seven

o'clock in the evening. They may not be employed in any capacity whatever in the manufacture of goods for immoral purposes or in theaters or places of amusement where liquors are sold; nor employed at certain dangerous occupations enumerated in the law, or at any occupation dangerous or injurious to health or morals. As to the latter, the decision of the county physician or city health officer is final.

The law further forbids the employment of females under sixteen years of age in any capacity where such employment compels them to remain standing constantly.

All children between fourteen and sixteen years of age before being employed in any factory, workshop, mine or mercantile establishment, are required to have an employment certificate. Their employer is required to post a list of them and to keep a duplicate list on file accessible to the truant officers and to the labor inspector.

The employment certificate is issued by the superintendent of schools, or by some person authorized by him in writing. It may not be issued until such person has received, approved and filed, the following papers:

1. The school record of the child.
2. A passport or duly attested transcript of the certificate of birth or baptism or other religious record.
3. The affidavit of the parent, guardian or custodian (in the event a certificate of birth is not produced) showing place and date of birth of such child.

A certificate shall not issue until the officer who gives the certificate shall, after examination, file a statement that the child can read and write legibly simple sentences; that the child in his opinion is fourteen years of age or upward; is of normal development and is able to perform the work which it intends to do. Before being entitled to its employment certificate, the child is required to attend a public school or a school equivalent thereto or a parochial school for not less than 100 days previous to his arriving at the age of fourteen years or during the year previous to applying for such certificate; the school record must show that the child is able to read and write simple

sentences, that during the previous year it has received instruction in reading, writing, spelling and geography and that it is familiar with arithmetic up to and including common fractions. Provision is made for an examination of the child as to its proficiency in the enumerated studies, where it is shown that a school record is not obtainable. Employers are required to return its employment certificate to the child upon the termination of its employment.

The law requires employers to supply or furnish safe contrivances for handling machinery; and prohibits the employment of any person under eighteen years of age in cleaning machinery while in motion. It requires employers to maintain suitable and proper washrooms and closets and to provide seats for girls under sixteen years of age. Violation of the law is punishable by a fine or imprisonment.

So much of the law as applies to the employment of children under fourteen years of age becomes effective June 17, 1908. So much as applies to the obtaining of an employment certificate does not become effective until September 1, 1908. So much of the law as applies to the educational test does not become effective until September 1, 1909.

The General Assembly made an appropriation for the purpose of encouraging the establishment and maintenance by private contribution of sanatoriums for the care and treatment of persons suffering from tuberculosis. Any sanatorium established within the commonwealth by private contribution, the charter of which provides that it shall not be operated for profit, shall be entitled to receive annually a sum equal to twenty per cent of the amount actually expended in establishing and equipping it. It is provided that no sanatorium shall receive in any one year an amount of money in excess of \$350 a year for each bed maintained, and further, that it shall not be entitled to receive any aid unless it is actually established, is receiving and caring for patients and has been in actual operation for a period of six months. Any sanatorium receiving any aid under the law is required to enter into a bond with the com-

monwealth, stipulating that all money paid to it shall be applied to its use. Like aid is given to sanatoriums which shall enlarge their plants, and those availing themselves of the provisions of the law are required to make full reports to the proper state officials.

The only sanatorium in the state established by private contribution is located in Jefferson county near the city of Louisville. The aid proposed by the law is the amount necessary to make up the deficit in its operation.

The bill presents an interesting experiment in the matter of state aid to a private institution.

The General Assembly passed further a bill authorizing the establishment of a state sanatorium for consumptives to be maintained wholly by the state. It is to be regretted that the governor felt constrained, on the ground of economy, to veto this measure.

A Mind that Found Itself

Reviewed by Alexander Johnson
Fort Wayne, Ind.

Many people who have recovered from insanity, after spending years in public and private hospitals, have tried to help their fellow sufferers by making known what has happened to themselves. Several of them have written and published accounts of their experiences. Usually such publications are more or less incoherent. Often it is easy to see that memories of delusions and memories of actual occurrences, have become inextricably mingled in the mind of the recovered patient. Often, also, the writer exhibits unmistakable symptoms of paranoia.

The Mind That Found Itself¹ is an exception to the ordinary run of books by recovered insane people. Although written with a clearly defined and professed purpose, it is moderate and calm in tone, free from hysteria and deserves a great deal of respectful attention. The incidents recounted are all too familiar, but the reflections upon them are just and suggestive. The experiences of the pa-

tient include public and private asylums or hospitals and cover a wide variety of care and treatment. Probably every incident of ignorance, thoughtlessness, petty spite, malice and violent cruelty, could be matched in the hospitals of many of the states. Similar ones will undoubtedly occur wherever the superintendent is lax or overworked, the attendants untrained and under-paid, and the outside inspection inadequate and rare.

There are many reasons for our comparative want of success in dealing with the insane. In most public institutions the rate of pay of nurses is inadequate and the service below the ratio of the pay. Of few of them is there any adequate outside inspection. Often the best of all inspectors, the superintendent himself, is too busy with other things, the so-called business of the institution, and sometimes other affairs, such as acting as an insanity expert in a murder trial, to visit the wards with the leisure and attention needed. Occasionally political influences interfere with the quality or the permanence of administration.

The two reasons for failure which are the most far reaching and injurious in their effects, are the lack of belief in the curability of insanity, and the sense of disgrace connected with it. To the extent that people, not only the laity, but members of the medical profession, both those in general practice and many of those in care of the insane, think that "once insane, always insane"—that permanent recoveries are rare exceptions—the insane will receive asylum care instead of hospital treatment. And because people connect a stigma of disgrace with mental alienation, early symptoms, even if detected, which happens rarely, are neglected, and not until it is impossible longer to ignore the disease, is application for admission to a hospital made.

The public is unhappily familiar with the results, as published in the many reports of investigations of cruelty and accidents. Fortunately some light seems now breaking upon both the above errors.

Mr. Beers, the author of this book, proposes no improvements in treatment that are not already in operation in the best state hospitals. Psychopathic hos-

¹ The Mind that Found Itself, by Clifford Whittingham Beers, New York, 1908. Pp. IX and 363. Price \$1.50. This book can be obtained at publishers' price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

pitals for early cases, systematic and frequent inspection, abolition of mechanical restraint, thorough training of all attendants, medical care for all cases, etc., are now well understood conditions of success. The author proposes as a remedy for the abuses of the insane the creation of a national society for their care and protection, with an extensive system of volunteer and other visitors. Such a society has been tried in this country. It was in existence in 1881-3. It met, at the outset, the determined opposition of many of the superintendents of hospitals for the insane. Possibly it was not well conducted and much of the opposition it engendered may have been due to avoidable errors of administration. A statement of its proposed work will be found in the Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction for 1881, on page 317 *et seq.* The society had little vogue and soon died. The time may now be ripe for a successful movement of the kind. There has been much increase of attention to public institutions during thirty years. The work of the State Charities Aid Association, in New York state, has shown, to some extent, what can be done by volunteer directors and visitors. Perhaps a national society with a similar purpose, might overcome some of the difficulties arising from state politics. At any rate, the humanity and common sense of the people cannot rest until such horrors as Mr. Beers describes shall be made impossible and the practice generally brought up nearer to the level of the best to-day.

Christianity and the Social Order¹

Reviewed by Gaylord S. White
New York

The author of Christianity and the Social Order is already well known for his presentation of the wider gospel in his book published about a year ago entitled *The New Theology*. He has become an avowed socialist and in the volume under review he sets forth the social

implications of his interpretation of the message and work of Jesus.

In the decline of the churches and the rise of socialism, Mr. Campbell sees "simply the revival of Christianity in the form best suited to the modern mind." That few have as yet observed this, he is aware, but he is confident that every thoughtful mind will soon be compelled to acknowledge it. He declares it to be the object of the book to show what is at stake in this recovery of Christianity in modern socialism from a formal ecclesiasticism. The author begins by pointing out that in spite of social attractions and humanitarian devices, the churches have failed to arrest the decline of their influence with the masses of the people. Their Christianity is not the Christianity of Jesus. They have been captured by the privileged classes and as a consequence the common people have drawn farther and farther away. But along with this extraordinary feature of the life of to-day, and while the Christianity of the churches has been departing more and more from the primitive gospel, socialism has been rapidly growing in influence and power, and has manifested itself as "actually a swing back to the gospel of the Kingdom of God, which was the only Gospel the first Christians had to preach." So plain is this that socialism, says Mr. Campbell, "may without the least exaggeration be described as the inheritor of the true Christianity."

With a view to making good this thesis the author proceeds to discuss the idea of the Kingdom of God in Jewish history, in primitive Christianity and in the Christian teaching of the present day. The ideal of a righteous social order which the author holds to have been the ideal of primitive Christianity—a Kingdom of God on the earth—is contrasted with the individualism of the Christianity of the Protestant Churches of to-day and their emphasis on "the necessity of preparing individuals for the world to come." Having thus cleared the way, Mr. Campbell now undertakes to develop and support his contention that socialism is "the practical expression of Christian ethics and the evangel of

¹Christianity and the Social Order by R. J. Campbell, M. A., minister of the City Temple, London. New York, 1907. Pp. 294. Price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publishers' price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

Jesus." The chapter on "the common objective of Christianity" is devoted to the task of showing that primitive Christianity and socialism have the same goal, that they are in fact identical in their ideals. The only divine commission that Christianity ever had is that of realizing on earth the Kingdom of God—that and nothing else. Its objective is "a social order in which every individual would be free to do his best for all and find his true happiness therein. But this is the fundamental principle of socialism too."

The socializing of national resources and of industry are then discussed and in conclusion the author sets forth what he believes is coming to pass as a result of present tendencies. He disclaims any intention or desire to describe a Utopia, but sets himself "the humbler task of describing what is already on the way, and what may fairly be expected as the result of forces at work in our midst",—namely, a socialized state.

The book is interesting reading. The style is vigorous and direct; and whether the reader agrees or disagrees with the position of the author, he cannot fail to derive a stimulus. There are indications that the book has been hastily written. A careful revision would probably have resulted in greater condensation. But to have revised it might have resulted in subduing its fire and reducing its intensity and this would have been a distinct loss. There are at times a certain tone of assurance, and an easy setting aside of difficulties that would be annoying if it were not for the moral earnestness which pervades the volume, and

which compels admiration and makes one reluctant to find fault.

The identification of Christianity with socialism seems a weakness. However much they may have in common, socialism is primarily a theory of social organization and Christianity a dynamic faith. Many persons who would accept in the main Mr. Campbell's definition of true Christianity and call themselves Christians, would disclaim being socialists and conversely many an avowed socialist would disclaim the name of Christian.

To some readers the theological portion of the book will be far from satisfactory. Mr. Campbell's discussion, for example, of the New Testament teaching frequently assumes as facts, matters with respect to which there is still wide divergence of opinion among scholars. Statements which tend to support the author's position are made without qualification and with no hint that a different view is quite possible. Nevertheless the book is worth reading. It makes one realize that there are problems, injustices, ancient wrongs, in our present social and industrial system which ought to stir the heart of every earnest person. And it drives home the fact that while the church has been largely indifferent or uncertain in the present crisis, the socialists have been looking facts squarely in the face, and, at least, seriously proposing a way out of the situation.

That both Christianity and socialism have much in common and that their followers are coming to recognize the fact can only serve to strengthen their influence and hasten the better day for which both long and work.



HIGHLAND FLING BY 150 CHILDREN FROM HAMILTON PARK.

The Chicago Play Festival

Graham Romeyn Taylor
Chicago

Those who were fortunate enough to be present at the first Chicago Play Festival, held in June, 1907, on the last day of the initial convention of the Playground Association of America, will doubtless find it hard to believe that the second festival, on June 20, 1908, turned out to be in every way a vastly greater and more significant event. With its 2,000 participants, its greater variety of games, dances and other features, its increased number of immigrant groups who entered more fully into the spirit of the occasion, and above all, with its multitude of over 25,000 onlookers, 18,000 of whom were present at the picturesque evening session, the 1908 Chicago Play Festival has more than made good its promise to become a permanent fixture in Chicago's life.

As a national event it has also demonstrated even more fully than last year its significance and worth. This is true for two reasons. In the first place, visitors from all over the country were present who came solely for the festival, the attraction of the national convention,—which last year brought the out-of-town contingent,—playing no part this year. And secondly, as is pointed out in two other articles contributed to this issue of

CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Chicago among all the cities of the world has a unique opportunity; Miss Tarbell instances the variety of peoples which in large numbers make up her population, and Mr. Millett speaks of the quality of this cosmopolitanism. This is not the fragmentary cosmopolitanism of the boulevard and of the hotel, nor is it the cosmopolitanism of distinct and unassociating national groups even though permanent and important parts of the population. The Chicago Play Festival shows a cosmopolitanism characteristic of Chicago's democratic spirit. Freely joining together in this unique occasion, an increasing number of immigrant groups showed national dances and peasant festival customs of the various fatherlands. Many of these adult participants could speak English but brokenly, if at all, yet every group caught the spirit of the day and joyously took its part. There was not the slightest semblance of a feeling of national superiority nor an inclination to disparage the dances and customs of any nationality. Each took the keenest delight in seeing the participation of the other groups as well as in contributing its own share. Much more fully than last year they seemed to ap-



THE TARANTELLA.

By four Italian girls from Chicago Commons neighborhood, taught by their parents.

preciate the welcome which Chicago extends to their Old World customs betokening the spirit of festivity and good fellowship.

Through its evening session, as has been stated, the 1908 festival far surpassed that of 1907 in picturesque effect. A year ago the program occupied morning and afternoon, while this year it was only by careful arrangement and allotment of time that everything was fitted into three sessions, morning, afternoon and evening.

With a sea of faces pressing in upon all sides of the hollow square, the evening session was a sight never to be forgotten. Row after row peered out of the darker and darker background until the faces of those in the standing multitude farthest back were scarcely distinguishable one from another. Looking across a wide strip of greensward which bordered the illuminated platform, all eyes were fascinated by the kaleidoscopic changes as one group of costumed dancers sallied forth from the darkness at the west side where all participants were seated, circled around the platform with their quaint steps and movements, and gradually faded back into the darkness, while another group came into view from another quarter.

Costumes did much to add picturesque beauty to the various dances. Finnish, Irish, Bohemian and Swedish groups ap-

peared in costumes which they had brought from the old country or had made according to old country memories. The groups of South park gymnasium young people, who danced various foreign dances in which they had been trained, wore costumes characteristic of the nationalities. The participants in drills and gymnastics all wore uniform dress. But lack of distinctive costume did not diminish interest in some of the groups, especially when one knew something of their history and significance. A dozen matronly women from the neighborhood of Henry Booth House Social Settlement danced, at the afternoon session, the Russian "scherelech," symbolical of the tailor trade,—which fact had vivid significance for certain industrial conditions in Chicago when one understood that the dancers were Russian Jewish immigrants.

Similarly with the Lithuanians, who came 100 strong and danced the "klumpakojis," "suktinis" and "naszlys," often singing impressively in their mother tongue. The ordinary street clothing of the American workingman in which they appeared seemed transformed into romantic habiliments as one's imagination was stirred by their story,—how their leader, a musician of distinction in the home country, had become a political refugee from St. Peters-



RUSSIAN DANCE.

The Scherelech, symbolical of the tailor trade, danced by Russian Jewish immigrants.

burg, had come to Chicago and rallied this chorus of one hundred, many of whom are stock-yard toilers, and a large proportion of whom, like himself, can scarcely speak a word of English.

Turning from such a group whose native grace was so charming, it was not a little significant to find a hundred rollicking young fellows genuinely delighted in the graceful gymnastic dancing which they had learned in a South park gymnasium. One could not help thinking of what that fact meant in a city where rough Saturday night dances in the lower class of saloon halls formerly held undisputed sway.

While national and folk dances by immigrant groups were the most impressive part of the festival program, there were many other features of more than ordinary interest. As in the 1907 festival, the morning was given over largely to small children. Kindergarten youngsters from all over the city marched on to play their circle and other games. Kindergarten teachers demonstrated a great variety of children's games. And boys and girls from public schools added their stunts. As a sort of foretaste of what was to come in the evening, these school children gave several interesting folk dances, chief among which were an Indian drill and a Polish national dance,



HAVING A FLAG DRILL ALL BY HIMSELF.



HURDLE RACE BY TWO PLAYGROUND GIRLS

both in costume. Rarely graceful was the Italian "tarantella" as danced by little Italian girls from the neighborhood of Chicago Commons. This dance had not been drilled into them, but had been taught them as a matter of course by their peasant parents. The summer evenings in the neighborhood are frequently enlivened by groups going through this dance to the music of the hurdy-gurdy.

Playground activities, young people's games, athletic exercises, races and calisthenics occupied most of the afternoon session. Some dancing however was interspersed. The Irish "lilt," Dublin jig, a Spanish dance, a clog, and several other gymnastic dances were given by students from Miss Mary Hinman's school. A Russian jig was danced by the same Russian Jewish immigrants who gave the "scherelech." And the girls from Hamilton park, led by Miss Frances Ross, instructor, danced the Highland fling in the same spirited way as last year when they left an enthusiastic and indelible impression upon the mind of Joseph Lee. The closing feature of the afternoon was an exhilarating game of field hockey by twenty-two women, students of the University of Chicago.

Turner organizations were represented in both the afternoon and evening session. Especial interest attached to their



AFTERNOON PANORAMA.
Boys and girls playing volley ball and other playground games.

Chicago International Gymnastic Class composed of men selected to represent Chicago at the International Turnfest held last month in Frankfort, Germany. The participation of this team in the Chicago Play Festival was a sort of farewell exhibition, for the men left the following day on their journey. The Bohemian Turners,—the Sokol Tabor and Pilson Sokol,—took part with their exercises, fancy dancing steps, calisthenics and Indian club drills by young women, while the Chicago Turnbezirk exhibited its wand drill, club swinging and apparatus work.

The evening session was largely given over to the national groups whose dances have already been described. Mention should be made however of the dances by the young women from Hamilton park. Their Irish patinetta dance, Dutch folk dance and Inverness reel quite captivated the crowd, the reel giving a lively conclusion to the whole program. A final send-off was given the festival, as was last year's by a lusty thunder-shower. A year ago the elements in their playfulness came romping in just before the program was finished, but this year they considerably waited until the crowd was on its way home. In this connection, however, it is worth telling that the long schedule of the evening session of fourteen numbers, each set for a definite time, was carried out with admirable precision under the direction of E. B. De Groot, who won new distinction by his genius as field director of the Chicago Play Festival. Rarely does such a program, definitely planned to fill a whole evening from 7.15 to 11.30 o'clock, with varied features involving many groups, reach its conclusion ahead of its scheduled time.

As chairman of the play festival committee of the Playground Association of Chicago, Mr. DeGroot had the co-operation of his other committee members, Miss Amalie Hofer of the Pestalozzi-Froebel Kindergarten Training School, Theodore Gross, superintendent of municipal playgrounds under the Special Park Commission, and the writer. The enlistment of many of the groups for the festival was secured, however, by a larger committee of people identified with various social settlements, schools,

playgrounds and other social activities. The utmost credit is due to the South park commissioners for the well-nigh perfect arrangements of the field, the recreation building and the other facilities of Ogden park. Mr. DeGroot's service as an official of the South park system, however, was the most effective part of the public spirited co-operation which the South parks rendered.

The large success of the two play festivals which the Playground Association has now conducted leads to a consideration of the future of such events in Chicago. The association has announced its desire to promote similar festivals on a smaller scale in all parts of the city. With the extension of the recreation centers in various sections, it is to be hoped that neighborhood play festivals may be arranged.

The Chicagoan with vision for the future of his city cannot avoid believing that with development of the magnificent city plan outlined by Daniel H. Burnham, large festival space and facilities may be afforded in the glorious Grant park on the lake front at the heart of the city. Even to-day there are signs which point to the probability that this place may soon be the scene of future Chicago Play Festivals far surpassing the achievements already attained. The filled-in area of Grant park is now extended well out into Lake Michigan, the trees have been started in their growth, and a prize architectural contest has been held for the best design for a great stadium. With the lake front park as the magnificent setting for future play festivals, the whole city would also find much readier access. Some of the immigrant groups who danced in the festival just held came long distances from one side of the city to another to take part, and many of the onlookers had their patience tried in their journey from distant parts of the town or suburban surroundings.

A sign of the times is to be found in a question which was raised only this last month in the Chicago Association of Commerce. Its official organ asks, "Shall not Chicago institute a great annual festival?" Replies indicate unquestionably the popularity of the idea not only among merchants but through all

Children at extreme right ready to march to platform for flag drill.

AFTERNOON PASTORAMA.
Nets for volleyball in foreground.
100 feet square; field 300 feet square.

Recreation building behind platform in background. Platform



classes of the community. While doubtless many had primarily in mind the attracting of trade, it is significant that no one even suggested copying the somewhat tawdry and meaningless street carnivals which have become all too prevalent. From this journal of *Chicago Commerce* itself comes the insistence on making the play feature prominent, calling attention to the fact that industry has thus far repressed too much the spirit of play, and declaring that though a youthful city "it would seem that I do not

Playground Association of Chicago, and from the latter a special committee was appointed to co-operate with the Chicago Association of Commerce and other civic bodies should the new movement lead to the promotion of great civic festivals.

Mention has already been made of the attendance from many parts of the country at the 1908 Chicago Play Festival. While the absence of a registration scheme made impossible a complete enumeration of out of town visitors, a casual inquiry revealed the presence of a



A SECTION OF THE EVENING CROWD.

know how to play." A festival must be created "indigenous and distinctive, a reflection of the history of this region, or of the nationalities composing its population, with their wealth of antiquity, or both. . . . Now is the time to lay out the project on broad and worthy lines; now may business man, artist, antiquarian, historian, and others unite to determine a plan which shall be not merely an imitation of something elsewhere, however successful, but a festival which shall be appropriate to this place, with relevancy to our history and our cosmopolitan nature." The editor of *Chicago Commerce* was a welcome guest at a recent meeting of the directors of the

large number representing widely scattered localities. Some of these guests from a distance were present because they happened to be in the city. Among such were Miss Tarbell and M. Millett whose articles are to be found elsewhere in this issue. But a large proportion came especially to attend the play festival. The head of the department of physical training at the University of Wisconsin brought with him four of his assistants; from Indianapolis came a group of people interested in the juvenile court and the ways of grappling with the more fundamental conditions that are tributary to juvenile delinquency; from Salt Lake City came

the president of a kindergarten association; Paterson, New Jersey, was represented by the president of her park board; the state universities of Ohio, of Missouri and of South Dakota had members of their respective faculties present; the Minneapolis Board of Education was represented by a school principal from that city; the state normal schools at Whitewater, Wisconsin, and at Westfield, Massachusetts, were both represented; the supervisor of kindergartens under the Des Moines Board of Education was

typified in the Chicago Play Festival. With the play spirit aroused, play space is bound to be provided, playgrounds will inevitably come to be established and maintained, and play itself will be created whether or not apparatus and facilities are forthcoming. If any reason is to be assigned for the success of Chicago's two great play festivals, it is because they have proved an inspiring expression of a glorious play spirit. With the magnificent system of South park recreation



SWEDISH DANCE

By Ogden park gymnasium members.

on hand to gain inspiration and suggestion; and other cities of considerable size were represented among the enthusiastic onlookers.

A striking tribute was this gathering from all over the country, and this great concourse of Chicago people, to a love for and belief in the essence of the playground movement.—play itself. More fundamental even than play space, more to the point even than discussions of play and playgrounds, more stimulating to play even than play apparatus, is the promotion of the play spirit as it was

centers, established at a cost of \$6,500,000, with at least eight more being established under the three park boards at an additional cost of \$4,500,000,—one of these new recreation centers in the heart of Chicago's densely crowded west side being dedicated on the day this issue appears,—and with an annual play festival of great and increasing significance, Chicago offers to the nation a prophetic glimpse of that growing spirit which is bringing a new humanity into city conditions and a new joyousness to all the people who dwell therein

An Old World Fete in Industrial America

Ida M. Tarbell

The American Magazine, New York

One of the first disappointing realizations of the immigrant to the United States must be that he has come to a country practically without fête days. Accustomed to a succession of religious and national holidays all lively in color and movement, to local fairs running over days—even weeks sometimes, to street shows and games and merry-makings, a land where not more than six or eight legal holidays are known and where the church is contented with an annual Sunday school picnic for the children, must seem poverty-stricken indeed in gaiety, whatever its opportunity for money-making.

There can be no doubt that the variety and number of fête days in foreign countries go a great way in making up to the laboring class for material hardships. Here there is no such compensation for new and often vastly more perplexing hardships. Even those among us who have appreciated the difficulties of the immigrant's transplanting and have tried to smooth them away have given little thought to this side of the matter. The tendency indeed has been to frown on the new-comer's efforts to introduce his own frolics and festivals as un-American and to impress upon him that it is work and not play which counts in the new land. We have been willing to improve him but unwilling to amuse him,—even to let him amuse himself. The result has been that he has dropped his merry-makings and even come to despise them and has substituted far less attractive and too often far less innocent amusements. The bar-room and the dance-hall are poor substitutes indeed for the open-air café and the village fair. We Americans lose no less than the foreigner loses by this. One of the most precious things he brings us indeed is his capacity for gaiety, expressed in picturesque dances and customs. We are always willing enough to travel far in Europe to study these expressions; indeed the popular fête is one of the things the tourist remembers longest, yet we have done almost nothing to encourage

the preservation here of any of its features although we have tens of thousands of the different European peoples among whom it thrives.

It is our long indifference to this side of the immigrant's life that gives peculiar interest and importance to the chief features of the newly instituted Chicago Play Festival, which is conducted annually by the Playground Association of Chicago. At the second festival, June 20, held, as was last year's, in Ogden park and with the co-operation of the South Park Commission, the dances of people after people,—Poles, Irish, Dutch, Italian, Lithuanian, Greek,—were given, in costume for the most part. It was really a great international celebration. It must have stirred the pride of the people represented and it ought to have aroused the Americans present to a sense of what we are losing in trying to suppress such expression of nationality. For myself I have rarely seen a popular fête which charmed and interested me more. It has the making of a unique festival, one which cannot be duplicated in any city of the country, for where is there so great a variety of peoples established as in Chicago?

It is to be hoped that the management will realize that the important features of the festival are the dances and will give either the afternoon or evening (preferably the evening, of course), entirely to them. This year various athletic feats were mixed with them to the loss of both. It goes without saying that the dances should be done in costume for the sake of keeping alive the pride and interest in them. The picturesqueness and suitability of the native dress is too often quite forgotten by those to whom it belongs in their eagerness to "look like other folk," which more often than not is to look pitifully dowdy. A little sympathetic appreciation might encourage the elders, at least, to try to preserve in their families models of their native dress and ornaments, a family treasure to be passed from generation to generation.



GYMNASTIC DANCING



POLISH DANCE.



VOLLEY BALL.

It may be that the dances of the Chicago Play Festival will be a starting point among our foreign citizens themselves of a desire to preserve in their families and groups something of the flavor of their native land. They bring here a wealth of peculiar handicrafts, customs, songs, dances, folk lore, all hallowed by traditions. The whole country is richer for the preservation of all these expressions of nationality. In one way or another our foreign-born citizens have

been made to feel that their ways were not respected or wanted here. They have soon become ashamed of them in consequence. The Chicago Play Festival says: "We do want you to perpetuate here whatever in your native life you can get joy from. Your dances in costume preserve in a way the spirit of your race. Do not forget them or neglect them. Cultivate them and once a year let us share your pleasure in them."

A Meeting and Mingling of Peoples

Philippe Millett

American Correspondent of the *Paris Figaro*

An interesting and picturesque sight we had that day in Ogden park. I do not think I ever heard before, either in Europe or in this country, of such a gathering and of a work so wide in scope. In France where great efforts have been made lately to promote the taste for athletics, the results are already praiseworthy; there are nowadays very few French towns in which there are not to be found one or more athletic clubs specially organized for the people. Still not a single one of the big towns has yet tried to establish such a system of parks and playgrounds as I had the pleasure to find in Chicago. It is needless to say that nothing could be more effective to diminish the evils of our modern town life than to bring the children of the people out in the open air and have them take well regulated exercises. Anybody who would have watched those cheerful little crowds of boys and girls playing on the green during the whole day would have realized at once how beneficial such an institution is. Indeed it ought to be made more general not only in Chicago itself but in every city of the world.

I especially enjoyed the popular dances which we were given to witness. The turners, I must confess, become rather dull after a little time. One feels that they are doing a useful thing and one wishes to encourage them, but their drills and exercises are all so mechanical and so much alike that the spectators cannot help wearying of them. It was on the contrary quite impossible to get tired of

those charming dances that seemed to revive the soul of the oldest nations of Europe. I know already that Chicago is perhaps the most cosmopolitan of all towns on earth for there is no place where the different races, instead of living apart, mix with each other more freely. It had made me sorry to see that each of those races seemed to have lost its personality and to assume a uniform and common appearance. What a delightful surprise it was then to have old costumes, old dances and old songs make you feel that the old soul is not dead. Here they were all: Irish girls dancing lightly their extraordinary jigs, slow Bohemians figuring with human groups the old fashioned spinning and weaving, Finns and Lithuanians expressing in their candid way the rare joys of their former life, finally those cheerful, heavy, lively Dutch groups which made me think of some Kermess by Rubens or Teniers.

This was really a unique sight. There is no other place in the world where it could be so genuine, where people from all the old countries of Europe could be brought together and induced to perform themselves their national dances for their own joy's sake. Everybody ought to be grateful to the organizers not only because they are doing such a wholesome work but because they will educate the artistic taste of all the people in helping the immigrants who come from the old world to understand the beauty of their own popular traditions.



ONE TYPE OF LAUNDRY.

Built with large square rooms, and with heat rising from cellar wash-room, from mangles, and from the dozens of ironing machines, there is little opportunity, even with an elaborate system of ventilation, to make the workplace tolerable. Gas and heat rise from floor to floor unhindered by the few electric fans.

Pittsburgh's Steam Laundry Workers¹

Elizabeth Beardsley Butler

The modern steam laundry is the latest instance of the routing of a home industry. Solitary washtub and red-armed washwoman—these are industrial types that are passing, as surely as individual loom and shuttle have passed, and the individual dye-vat for cloth. They are beaten back by the advance of the machine which has invaded and overcome the province of one kind of hand work after another. The type in the ascendant to-day is the low stone building with its washing machines, mangles, and steam ironers of a dozen kinds, its system of marking worked out in minute detail, and its network of agencies and drivers' routes to gather in trade from hotels and factories, from railroads and private homes. Here and there circum-

stance gives added reason for the growth of the newer type. A railroad center with its stream of travellers demanding quick, efficient service, its stations and Pullman-cars with their immaculate porters, its hotels and cafés, sending out wagon loads of table-linen—these are consumers who scarcely can wait until it is the whim of the sun that their linen be dried. The commercial laundry is the only possibility.

Of this, Pittsburgh laundrymen have taken advantage, and of the black smoke, too, and the smoke-filled fog, conspirators both against all fine fabrics. The knot of railroad lines, the travellers, the hotels, but most of all the black dust from the mills, have helped to make the industry prosperous. From the lower city to the East End there are no less than thirty-two steam laundries, four of them in charitable institutions, but all

¹This is the second of Miss Butler's series of four articles on women's work. It is abridged from three chapters of her report in the Pittsburgh Survey. The first article, *The Story Industry in Pittsburgh*, was published in *CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS* for July 4.

of them commercial, with a force of 2,402 employes, of whom 2,185 are women. As employers of women, exclusive of clerical work, the laundries stand third. Mercantile houses rank first and the stogy industry second.

The division of labor¹ is carried far as in a factory. There is specialization for speed. Most of the women are young, as factory girls are young. Yet the differences of type among them are greater than one finds in any other industry. In the several departments,—washing, mangling, starching and ironing, checking and sorting,—there are different kinds and conditions of work, differences of mental and physical demand, and wide differences of personnel.

As it nears seven in the morning, one may see the girls coming down the street. Bleak and dull-red and square, the low buildings stand against the gray light. A single driver's wagon is in the alleyway. Several men, high-cheeked Slavs, have just gone in, but close behind them is a group of American girls, collarless and rough-jacketed, with shoes much worn and old. There is pride in their look, but none of the almost defiant independence which one instinctively reads into the stubborn pace of the three Polish girls who follow. These come linked together in the spirit of "we against the world," even if "we" be only three feeders at a mangle, and the world, that large impersonal thing which is represented by the foreman. There are young girls, too, girls out of school only a month or two, lacking the training of eye or hand or brain which might set them a step higher at the start. A rough-armed Irishwoman, a grandmother, walks with them. She has seen her trade go, together with her early strength, and has found here her only chance to get a steady job. There are others, women who have spent their youth too quickly, and have sold their strength at a little price. There are women worn out at other trades. And there are girls with fresh faces and bright eyes, girls who step quickly, surely, with the pride that comes from the

consciousness of a trained hand and a clear brain. There are only two of these, but of the others there are many. The whistle from a neighboring factory shrills out the hour, there is the slow sound of an engine starting, a gathering whirr of belts and wheels, and the last girls disappear to take their places at the machine.

At the preliminary processes of washing, mangling, and starching, place is found for the beginners and the girls of lowest grade. There are only a few women in the washroom, for this is pre-eminently the man's part of the laundry, and such women as work there are employed only on pieces which it is convenient to have done by hand. The washermen, who are frequently American, and the wringermen, who are nearly always Slavs, have full charge of the washing machines,—huge cylinders full of hot water and steaming clothes,—and of the extractors, which twist the clothes and fling out the water by centrifugal force. With haste always behind them, the men do not wait to let all the water run out before they lift the dripping garments into trucks and wheel them over to the metal wringers. The results are a wet floor and a cloud of steam, which affect not only the workers here but all the workers on the floors above, for the washroom is usually on the first floor or in the cellar. The convenience of the drivers, and a tradition, referable perhaps to the washtubs in the kitchen, is responsible.

From this point of view, the washroom is the most important department in a laundry. On its construction and on the regulation of its work, depend the health of workers in all parts of the building. Its location, its drainage, provision for the escape of steam and for forced ventilation, become matters of much significance. Yet there is only one laundry in Pittsburgh, in which the washroom is on a floor above the other departments, and so shut off by concrete walls that the rest of the building is not filled with steam. One other has a second floor washroom, but the rest choose first floors or cellars with fine disregard of the discomfort and positive ill-health that may

¹ This discussion deals solely with the twenty-eight commercial laundries. Institutional laundries are excluded because of limitations of space in a magazine article.

result. Yet we might expect that even if location were not considered carefully in the arrangement of departments, such provision would be made for the escape of steam and for adequate ventilation as to make the workrooms more tolerable. But in considering provision for the escape of steam, we have to meet a situation characteristic of Pittsburgh. In only one case is there any outlet except through the windows, and on a foggy day the windows are useless. For the Pittsburgh fog is not the fog that a coast town knows; it is moisture permeated with coal dust and grime, perilous to the eyes and throat of the pedestrian, and of a fatal, penetrating quality wherever open door or window gives it a chance to enter. It has to answer for many a spoiled lot of clothes which it seized on their way from washing machine to extractor,—a mishap not discoverable until they reached the ironing room and had to be sent back ignominiously for a repetition of the process from the beginning. What wonder, then, that there are orders for doors and windows to be kept closed? What wonder that in seven cases the washroom windows are so small and low, not over three feet by three, that air cannot come in nor steam fly out; or that in three cases there are no windows or other openings at all?

But to the girls standing just above, the hot boards seem scorching. The steam seems to work its way through cracks and crevices, and to attack them like a vicious thing until in dismay they give up their jobs and try what chance may have for them elsewhere. One girl told me that as long as she worked in a laundry, she always went home by a back street so that no one would see the old shoes which she had to wear. Tight-fitting shoes were unendurable. "I never knew anyone who worked in a laundry long," said another girl. "The work's too hard, and you simply can't stand the heat."

Sometimes electric fans are provided, by the slit of a window at the far end of the room or near the stairway, but a single fan, or even two, is a feeble defense against clouds of steam rising from two to six boiling cylinders, ten hours a

day. Even iron pipes to admit outside air, a device used in one basement washroom, are powerless in the presence of a hot six-roll mangle and a row of washing machines, cellar-wide.

Good drainage makes ventilation less difficult. In all but three cases, gutters run under the washing machine to carry off the waste, and where the floor is convex, there need not be much waste water under foot, if reasonable care is used in lifting the clothes. Yet in the majority of the rooms, nineteen cases, I found that the floor was either flat or sunken and filled with holes and that the water stood in pools. Sometimes this was in a cellar, closed in by rough, damp stones and lit by a flaring gas jet; sometimes it was on a first floor, a few steps away from the mangle-room and just beneath the ironers. Often it was in a basement, half lit by small, dim panes of glass, and foul with the odor of soiled linen and of steam that had risen and cooled for months without once being cleared by a sweep of fresh air.

For the women who work in these washrooms, there are few mitigating circumstances. In twenty out of the twenty-eight laundries, no women are employed regularly, but in the rest thirteen women work regularly, and more under extra pressure of trade. "You can't get a young woman to do this work," managers say. They are women whose strength has gone at other trades, housewifery mainly. For a dollar a day they work ten hours over the tubs, at flannels and socks, and sometimes fine things, that would need to be handled by an extra machine if they were machine-done. From a visit to one laundry, I have taken the following: "Cellar washroom; eight men employed. Two women hand washers for flannels. The firm finds that its trade in articles of this kind has doubled since it began to do this work by hand. The washroom is not well drained. Gutters beneath washing machines, but the floor is straight and has sunk in places. Windows are small, three feet by three. Ceiling low, less than ten feet. No escape for steam, and the air is foul." It is incongruous to find this survival of

the home industry, with its discomforts, incorporated in a department of a factory industry imperfectly developed. It is questionable whether this survival is necessary. Some laundries succeed without it. Whether it be true or not that fine goods can be treated without undue wear and tear, and yet without recourse to the washtub, one wonders what solution will offer itself when the present generation of old women has passed away. There is little hope for recruits from among the young women, to whom the factory tradition, the idea of collective work, is fundamental.

To the hand washers, and to all the other women in the plant, the location of the washroom below rather than above other departments, the imperfect drainage, inadequate ventilation, and lack of provision for the escape of steam, make work unnecessarily hard, and take too great a toll from their store of strength.

Opening out of the washroom or on the floor just above it, is the room where the mangle stands. Under the steam heated metal rolls of the great machine, or around the steam cylinder, winding in tortuous ways through inner recesses, go table and bed linen, towels, and all manner of flat things, to come out smooth and dry at the farther end. There is almost a fascination in watching the even pace of the continuous apron that carries the sheets along, the developed efficiency of this socialized household ironing day. The work is done by the machine. The responsibility on the mangle girls is relatively small.

First of all, goods come to the shakers-out. Near the trucks full of hard twisted knots of clothes stands a group of young girls and tired faced women untwisting, unknotting, shaking out piece after piece, so that it may be fed into the mangle. Sometimes there is a wooden "tumbler" to make the work easier. Shaped like a washing machine, it is closed around the clothes and revolved rapidly with a reversible motion, untwisting as it goes. Yet these machines are provided in only a few laundries, and as a rule all the work of standing and shaking out falls on the girls. There is nothing in this occupation which

involves training or skill. There is not even responsibility for the appearance of the finished product. The shakers-out stand between washers and ironers, their only care being not to interfere with the work of the one, nor to undo the work of the other. This is the first process at which a learner is put; it is sometimes the last process of a woman worn out at other trades. Some are earning four dollars a week, but there are more at three-fifty and three, for neither a young girl nor an older unskilled girl who is willing to start as a beginner, can ask for more. For the younger ones at least, there is opportunity for promotion.

The first step of advancement in most laundries is to the position of folder, but as this is the third process, I shall speak of the feeders' work first. The feeding operatives stand at one end of the mangle and push the flat goods over the metal apron until the rolls catch them, when their responsibility is at an end. One girl can feed in towels or other small pieces without any help, but for table linen, or wide pieces of the sort, two and sometimes three, girls are needed, so that they may have hold at several places, and feed evenly under the rolls. The work requires some care and attention,—exactness in feeding in the different articles, care because of the finish, as to which side is uppermost. Yet here, too, the process needs no skill, and but little training. It is learned in an hour, and thereafter the feeder needs only to give her attention to the work to do it well.

She is marked out from other laundry workers by the element of danger in operating the machine. Some years ago, when mangles were in process of development, it happened that as the flat piece was pushed over the roll, the roll caught more than the cloth,—it caught fingers and hand and arm of the girl operative; fingers and hand and arm crushed flat as the cloth that she had been guiding, for there is no halting in the perfect mechanism of the mangle, no halfway stopping places until the length of the rolls is reached, or the machine thrown out of gear. This meant not death, but hideous suffering. It meant irreparable limitation of the power to



IN FRONT OF A LAUNDRY.

The girls in the doorway are typical of the mangle and starching rooms. At the upper window are some of the sorters, girls of a different type, better trained, more highly skilled, more reliable.

participate in the activities of others, or to work toward a point of economic self-sufficiency.

Accidents of this sort became common to a point where it was considered advisable to guard the machine. To-day one never finds a mangle unguarded. Some have a small roll, two and a half inches in diameter set at a space of perhaps four to six inches from the heated rolls, so that if the girls' hands went under, the weight and heat would serve as a reminder, but the small roll could not crush them. Sometimes this unheated roll is connected with the belting, so that if it is lifted, the belt is thrown off and

the machine stopped. In one case there is a large roll, four inches in diameter, set at the same distance from the heated rolls. Sometimes there is an upright bar in front of the rolls.

But in twenty-one of the laundries it is the small roll that is used, because this serves the purpose of partly straightening the cloth, as well as of guarding the feeders, and in consequence it is more popular with laundrymen than a bar which serves no useful purpose so far as the goods are concerned. Yet one may realize that this small roll is not wholly adequate, by comparing its diameter with that of the large steam heated rolls,—

two and one-half inches against twelve. There is no need for long explanation of the psychology of carelessness about things with which one is familiar. The feeder works ten hours a day at least. Hour after hour and week after week, she goes through the same operations. She loses respect for the danger of the thing which she seems to know so thoroughly. The small roll is not sufficient to guard her against careless work, and if there is a space between small roll and large, and the sheet is started unevenly, what more easy than to straighten it before it reaches the large roll, in the perilous space between? One foreman who found that the girls had a tendency to do this, had the small roll removed and an upright bar put in its place. A four-inch bar (found in five cases), covers more of the heated rolls than a small roll possibly can and if it is set so that there is not space beneath for fingers to go through, an accident seems improbable. Yet in this case, the bar was set at the height of an inch above the metal apron, and the feeder had to depend on her own alertness quite as much as before. Three weeks after the change of guard, her attention slackened, and her fingers were crushed.

It is not my purpose to arraign the mangle departments of laundries for a record of maimed hands and arms. Indeed, as far as I have been able to learn, the percentage of accidents is not high, not over three per cent of the total employes in the department. The point which I wish to make is that accidents still occur, and that it is possible to prevent them. One could wish that as much thought had been given to making a mangle accident,—one of the most horrible of non-fatal accidents,—impossible, as has been given in bringing to perfection the mechanical details of the machine. Yet should an accident occur and the injured employe bring suit, she could not recover, under the imperfect employers' liability law of Pennsylvania, if the machine were guarded by any of the methods described, for it could be shown that the employer had taken "all reasonable care," had used the guards

that are customary, and that the operative had been careless.

The work of the folder, or receiving operator, may sometimes be dangerous, but it is not usually. If the girl reaches up to catch an article that is being carried through the machine a second time, there is much chance that her hands will be caught, but as a rule the sheets drop from the rolls, and she has only to receive them, and fold them to convenient size. This folding is final for delivery, and on the receiving operator, consequently, rests much of the responsibility for the attractive appearance of laundered articles. The folder sits at work in front of the wooden shelving on which the goods fall from the machine. She is the only girl in the mangle room who can be seated, though I found one laundry which provides stools for its feeders.

Taking the department as a whole, the girls here rank lowest. They are the most unstable, the most difficult from the point of view of the employer. Socially they form a group by themselves. Where there is marked difference in ages, it is the mangle girls who are the youngest, and where there is a difference of nationality, they are of the immigrant group. Their work, which requires least training, is paid at the lowest rates, in a third of the laundries at three dollars to four dollars a week; in half the laundries at four dollars to five dollars. Except in the case of head girl, no mangle girl is paid more than six dollars.

The next step of promotion from the mangle-room is to the starching department. Here machinery is less in evidence, and hand work assumes prominence once more. Half a dozen girls, collarless, their waists turned in at the neck, faces flushed, sleeves rolled high, a few small machines with pans of boiling starch, a great square dryhouse with its chain of hooks moving slowly, steadily, in and out, and a long table where other girls stand rubbing hundreds of collars smooth,—this is the sight one gets of a starching room in passing through. Directly above the boiler, though sometimes at the distance of three floors, the

dryhouse is placed, so that the pipes may run in a straight line. This often means that the starching room is pushed into a corner of the building formed by an inside partition on one side and the dryhouse on the other, with light from the outside windows completely shut off. Movement of cool air is especially important, because there is the heat from the dryroom as well as from the washroom below, and from the starching machines close by, but except for a feeble electric fan at times, there is no forced ventilation to the rescue.

As to the work itself, shirt and collar starching is the most important. There are three main groups of machines,—a collar starcher, a shirt bosom starcher, and a band starcher. The band starcher has two rolls about four inches wide, the lower one resting in a starch pan that is kept at high temperature by a steam chest underneath. Pressure of a treadle lifts the lower roll out of the starch, and causes it to revolve against one point of the upper roll, in this way rubbing starch into the article for as long a time as the pressure is continued. Attached cuffs and collars, neckbands, wristbands, are starched at this machine. The pressure required is light, and the machine so largely automatic that little skill or experience is demanded of the operator.

The same principle is used in the shirt bosom starcher, but here there is only one roll, usually of cupped rubber. This rests in a steam heated starchpan, until treadle pressure causes it to revolve backward and forward over the oval wiping board on which the shirt bosom is placed. The collar starcher is more complex, and among the many different kinds in use one finds two widely different principles. In either case the collar girl has only to feed in collars or cuffs, which are then carried by the conveying apron into contact with rolls immersed in hot starch, the starch rubbed in, and the collars brought by the conveying apron out to the receiving table at the other side. In five-sixths of the laundries, twenty-two cases, there are wiping girls who follow the machine by rubbing in the starch with their hands, and then wiping the collars smooth with a cloth. This is the skilled work of a starching room, for the

girls have to acquire a firm, even pressure and to use judgment as to the amount of starch; here more than elsewhere, there is similarity to the hand processes of domestic service.

But this work in laundries is passing too, or at least one can see that the change is on its way, for in four cases, there is a new style collar starcher, which itself does the rubbing and wiping that in other cases the girls are required to do. There is no resemblance here to a former domestic process, for somewhere in the recesses of the machine the thinking is done, and the collars are rubbed clear before they reach the receiving table. The work of the dryhouse is automatic, and collars hung by their eyelet holes on hooks are carried on a continuous chain through a series of loops in the closed, highly heated room. As they reach the outer air again they drop automatically into a basket and are taken away to be dampened and ironed.

The special duty of the starching girls is to keep the conveyor (the travelling chain of hooks), clean. Early Monday morning, before the other girls are at work, the starchers come to scrub into a state of shining perfection the long chain that hourly carries its freight of damp, starched clothes. This is one of the most difficult pieces of machinery to keep in good condition, for every hook of it must be gone over scrupulously. Yet with this extra duty the wages of starchers are still low. In many cases they are the same as those of the mangle girls. One finds a tendency, however, toward a little higher level. There are more girls at four dollars and five dollars; one-fourth of them may earn as much as six dollars in time, and there are several instances of head girls paid seven dollars and even eight. These latter are old employes who have been advanced quite as much for length of service as for the actual work they do, which in no case is highly skilled. The judgment needed for hand-wiping seems to have had more influence than anything else to raise the level of wages in the department, and the machine has not yet won its way into enough laundries to have had any perceptible effect on the wages.

First of all, I have spoken of these preliminary processes which, partly in order of occurrence, but chiefly in the level of wages and of skill, may be grouped together. The semi-clerical work of checking and sorting, the finishing work of ironing by hand and by machine, demand as a rule more skill and are better paid. The girls, too, are on a different level. Between them and those in the other rooms, there is no intercourse, no basis for fellowship, no consciousness of mutual interests. They do not eat lunch at the same time or in the same room. They do not go to and from work together. They are separated by a caste feeling which keeps each girl stratified in the place to which her skill has brought her, and makes common action between departments well-nigh impossible. Starchers are on a level higher than mangle girls, but the barrier between them and the ironers is as sharp as between all other departments and the checkers and sorters. These last are the aristocrats of the laundry. It matters not if they work in a corner of the cellar close by the washroom, or in a bright clean room shut away on the first floor, respect is accorded to them by subordinates in all other departments, as to girls who have won their place by skill and the modicum of training that is so often out of reach.

Checkers and sorters, one group at the beginning of the laundry processes, the other at the end, may be treated here together, as in so many cases the same force is used in both departments.¹ The checkers receive the bags of soiled linen from the drivers, mark each article with the owner's name, and sort out into different baskets the groups that are to be washed separately,—colored goods, flat work, shirts, collars, fancy articles, and so on. This involves considerable handling of soiled linen, and frequently is done in a workroom far from desirable. The main point has been to arrange for the shortest possible route from one department to another, and this has meant sometimes a cellar checkroom, to which the bags are sent through chutes from the street or the floor above. It has meant

often close contact with the washroom, and an atmosphere partly steam, partly the odor of unwashed clothes, partly the musty smell from water long clinging to floors and walls. In only six cases are the checkrooms wholly separated from the washrooms without being located directly above them. In three-sevenths of the rooms electric light is used, because the straggling rays of light have too far to come, and in sixteen cases there is no means of ventilation.

One of the largest firms, which operates two plants and pursues about the same policy with regard to its employes in each, has wide differences in its checking departments, due apparently to the accident of building construction. In one case, additions have been made from time to time by taking on other small buildings in the same row, and it so happens that the checkroom is practically in a building by itself, connected by a door with the rest of the laundry, and heated from the main plant, but otherwise completely separated. There are windows side and front, and the appearance of the room is bright, clean and sunny. One sees instantly the reaction on the employes. The four girl checkers are as trimly dressed, with evidence of as much self-respect, as clerks in a business office. There is little to suggest kinship with the unkempt women who work in the hurry, dirt, steam and bad air of the usual checkroom, or indeed with the women in the other plant owned by the same company. There the checkroom is on the first floor, separated by a half partition of unpainted boards from the mangleroom, and directly above the boiler and washroom. Pipes from the dry-house on the floor above run through it. Three unshaded electric bulbs help out the dim light that filters through from the two small windows opening on an alley. The floor is so overheated that in summer the girls can scarcely stand, and even in the cool of winter, to breathe is difficult. A dozen different girls have come and gone within the summer months, but the location is convenient for drivers and for washroom, and to the firm no change of arrangement seems possible.

Sorters, on the other hand, work usu-

¹ Four laundries have marking machines on the principle of a typewriter. One machine does the work of from two to four girls and requires less intelligence in the operator than in a hand checker.



A CHECKER, THE ARISTOCRAT AMONG LAUNDRY WORKERS.
This is taken from the best of the laundry check rooms, where there is light and air and cleanliness enough to react upon the workers.

ally on the upper floor near the ironing room, and are affected less by the heat from below. There are "rough-dry" sorters, ranking little above the mangle girls in skill, who have only to put the unironed work into different bins according to driver's route and owner's name. There are "flat work" sorters who take charge of all the goods that come from the mangle. There are "collar and cuff sorters," in charge of the work that is most difficult and exacting. "If our customers' collars should get mixed," said one foreman graphically, "where would our trade be?" I have seen at work in this department men who could sort out thousands of collars from memory with remarkable speed and accuracy, but I cannot remember ever having seen a woman do this. As a rule, women are not so quick, but they can be trained to accuracy, although many laundrymen feel that successful work requires the sympathetic and discriminating touch of a man who wears collars rather than the merely routine work of a girl who has had a perfunctory training in distinguishing marks.

The character of the work, and the location of checking and sorting rooms is of interest from the standpoint of the industry. There are other points, however, tendencies toward change, such as the displacement of men by women, that are of wider industrial significance. This department offers an instance of competition between men and women on the same ground. It is not a case of rivalry between women and boys, nor of rivalry between men who do skilled hand work, as in the stogy industry, and women who do cheaper machine work. In this case they are doing the same work. There is no machinery, so it is not a case where, although women have displaced men, men are needed to take care of the wom-

en's machines. Checking and sorting require a common school education, intelligence, accuracy, speed, and skill. Nine years ago the work was exclusively in the hands of men. One plant which had the prestige of a chain of laundries in several cities, started employing women checkers, and in nine years women have wholly displaced men in fifteen out of the twenty-eight laundries, and partially displaced men in five others. The reason for this is not greater efficiency, greater speed or skill. There are differences of opinion among individual proprietors, but the majority say that women are neither so quick nor so accurate as men. The reason is financial; women are cheap. "You can get two women where you got one man, get twice as much work done, and done just as well." From the South Side to the East End this opinion is voiced by laundrymen. Sometimes men are retained as responsible heads of the department even when women are employed as assistants, but even in the responsible positions women are in the majority,—thirty-nine women to twenty-five men. Although there is no instance of a man being paid less than twelve dollars a week, and the general rate runs from fifteen to eighteen dollars, one frequently finds the best girl in the check-room earning eight dollars, and the poorest five. Sometimes women employed as head checkers are paid eight and nine dollars a week, but ten dollars or twelve is more usual. In general, a head sorter earns slightly more than a head checker, although there are three cases of women in charge of both departments who earn no more than the lowest paid women in charge of one.

The following table gives a summary of the situation in checking and sorting departments in Pittsburgh:

	Head checker	Head sorter	Head both depts.	Assist- ants	Reason			
					More ac- curate	Women hard to get	Cheap- er	Cheaper more re- liable
Men employed.	11	10	4	3	2	2	—	—
Women employed.	15	16	8	20	—	—	18	4
Men and women employed jointly.				3				
Totals.	26	26	12	26	[2 + 2 +	18 +	4]	26
Total number of men.			38	Total number of women.....153				

There is evidence here, not to be controverted, as to the power of mere cheapness, irrespective sometimes of lesser skill and lesser accuracy, to lead to the displacement of one sex by the other.

Entering the ironing room on the upper floor of a laundry, one is conscious first of all of long rows of machines set near the windows and back toward the center of the room, one behind another. There is the rush of belting, the irregular sound of reversible rolls, the gleam of a row of blue gas flames here and there, a girl standing beside each machine, now adjusting the metal clamp to a neckband, now violently forcing into position a cuff-press, now stepping back and forth with a steady treadmill motion as the rolls of a body ironer revolve and reverse, revolve and reverse, incessantly. Each girl is a specialist at her machine. She does not even iron a whole article. Instead, she irons a sleeve, or a cuff, or yokes, or perhaps one side of a collar. In small laundries one often finds that girls are taught to use all the different machines, but generally the operator is trained for speed and maximum output at one kind of work.

There are two main groups of ironing machines, steam presses, and rolls, although these latter have in several instances been superseded. For sleeve and body ironing a machine is built with two hollow metal rolls, the upper one heated by interior gas jets, the lower one unheated and usually padded. The garment is placed over this lower roll, which is lifted by pressure of a treadle into position against the constantly revolving upper roll. Where a reversing mechanism is secured by belts or gears, double treadle action is required. With the left foot the operator presses on one treadle heavily enough to lift the lower roll into close, continuous contact with the upper, for the moment the pressure is lessened the roll will drop. Then for the reverse motion of the upper roll, the second treadle must be pressed by the right foot, and these two motions repeated until the garment is ironed. The rolls of a sleeve ironer are not more than six to twelve inches, but in a body ironer, they reach twenty-two to

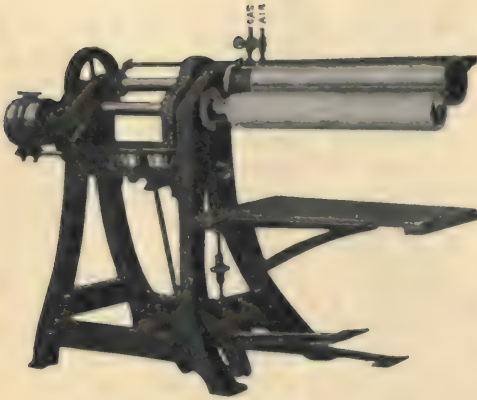
thirty-four, with a seven and one-half inch diameter for the heated roll, and five and one-fourth for the roll that is padded. The metal is not less than three-fourths of an inch thick. This means that operation of the machine does not involve simply release of the mechanism, but a continuous muscular exertion to keep the contact of the two rolls complete and even. One foreman remarked naively that he would not hire a girl for the body ironer unless she weighed 180 pounds. One might doubt whether mere avoirdupois would be a sufficient guarantee of strength to ensure efficient work.

Fumes from the gas are a constant annoyance, and in England have been considered a source of ill-health serious enough to warrant specific legal requirement of vents or protectors for the operators. In the catalog of the American Laundry Machinery Company, issued in September, 1906, page 110, I find the following statement:

This particular style of body ironer is manufactured more especially for the export trade, and is extremely popular in Great Britain, though it can be used to good advantage anywhere. . . . An iron hood lined with magnesia forms a covering for the heated roll. This is provided with a vent pipe at the top, through which the excess heat and unconsumed gases escape, thus protecting the operator. This latter device is attached in order to comply with the factory laws of Great Britain.

This ironer, although it is heavier and its dimensions are greater, is not listed at a higher price. The extra expense in setting it up is slight, yet not one of the Pittsburgh laundries has such a device, nor does one protect its operators against the inhalation, ten hours a day, of the fumes of gas. I am informed by the American Laundry Machinery Company that there is no sale for this style of body ironer in this country.

Roll ironing of shirt bosoms seems to be falling into disuse because of the popularity of the domestic finish produced by the steam press. The roll bosom polisher was the most difficult machine to operate, and the tradition of it, so far as wages go, has largely



BODY IRONING MACHINE.

The type used in the United States. The upper roll is gas-heated, with reversible motion, operated by two treadles.

descended to the bosom press, although here the work is in great measure automatic. For the press there are two padded boards, both turreted on the same post, so that the operator does not need to change her position as she adjusts the shirts in place. The neckband ring is adjustable, and the shirt is fastened by metal plates which keep the shape exact. While the operator is fastening one shirt to the board, the other is being ironed by pressure under a steam chest, and with a touch of the release treadle the two boards are swung around, the clamps that held the shirt in place being automatically pushed off. Some men estimate that a girl can learn the work in two hours. There is no doubt as to the simplicity of it, and it was with much indignation that one laundryman spoke of the effect on him of the demand for the domestic finish. "Two years ago," he said, "we used to finish all our shirt bosoms on a roll shirt polisher. The machine cost \$175, and the operator, a really unusually good girl, got six dollars a week. Now to get the finish our customers demand, we've had to buy two bosom presses, \$600 each, with a weekly expense of ten to fourteen dollars for padding the boards, and the two girls who operate them, we have to pay eight dollars a week each."

This is the high water mark of wages

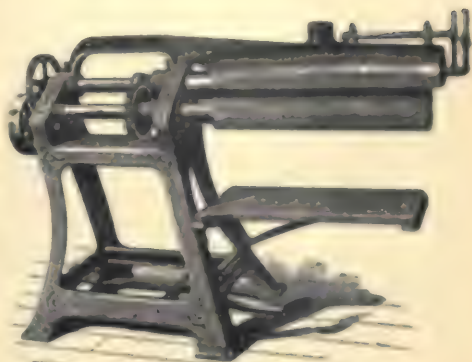
in the ironing department. Shirt bosom ironers are paid not less than six dollars, and more generally seven, with occasional rises to eight dollars, and in one case to nine. Below this point, one finds the girls at the other machines earning five to seven, and sometimes at the cuff presses falling as low as \$3.50.

Cuff and neckband press, and the wing point tipper for collars, are operated in very nearly the same way. The cuff is placed over the saddle-shaped padded head; pressure of a treadle raises the head against a steam chest, and pressure of another treadle causes the head to drop back as the cuff is finished. In the later models a spiral spring supplements the foot pressure, and a touch of the treadle releases the spring, forcing the saddle-shaped head against the steam chest. In this case, the cuff remains under the press longer, for the actual ironing, as in the case of the bosom ironer, is done automatically. But only four of the Pittsburgh laundries have cuff presses with a spring. In the others, the cuff is ironed by violent pressure of the treadle which forces hot metal and padded head together. By sheer physical effort, the operator presses each cuff four times, twice on a side, the whole body of the girl shaken by the force which she is obliged to use. In one laundry, the manager said: "No American can stand this. We have to use Hungarians or other foreigners. It seems to be unhealthful, but I don't know. The girls don't stay long enough for us to tell." Yet American girls do stand it. I have seen them ironing at the rate of three cuffs a minute. This meant twelve of these violent motions each minute, a total of 7,200 treadle pressures in a day.

There is a growing tendency to stimulate output by substituting piecework in the ironing department for the weekly wages which have been customary. Where the force is so small that one girl cannot be kept at one machine, such a system is impracticable, of course, and in the opinion of men who have a standard of perfection in finish, it is undesirable because

it tends to make the girls hurry too much. Piecework must always go hand and hand with a system of inspection, but even allowing for this it has been found in those places where it has been thoroughly tried, that there is so great a reduction in the number of hands that the firm does actually gain by a reduced payroll. In two cases the numbers in the ironing department have been reduced one-half, and although there is an uncertain possibility that a few girls may earn more on a piece basis, the general level of wages is as low, and in some cases lower, than when payments are by the week. One woman who has known the laundry business for years, first as a starcher fourteen years old, and later as forewoman, told me of the time when she worked at a shirt machine, in one of the laundries where the piece system has been fully developed: "Yes," she said, "it's growing, this tendency to put everything on piecework, and it is possible to make as much as you used to by the week, but I tell you, you have to work hard for it. The first week I was put on piecework at ——'s, I got four cents apiece for shirts, and I made \$14.05. The next week the rate was cut so that I had to work hard to make eight dollars. They fix the rate according to what you used to make, and what they want you to get out, and I tell you, you have to work hard."

The tendency toward piece-work is true to an even greater extent among fine ironers. In one-fourth of the laundries, they are paid a percentage, twenty to twenty-five per cent of the market charge for the finished article, and in their harvest time in summer they reach sometimes a maximum of fifteen dollars, in other cases falling as low as ten dollars, and when paid by the week seldom earning more than eight. For them, twenty-four hours' work at a stretch means a tangible and measurable return, for even during the season there come light weeks when they have not more than forty-eight hours' employment, and with the



BODY IRONING MACHINE

Made by the American Laundry Machine Company for use in Great Britain. The hood and vent pipe carry gas and excess heat away from the operator. "There is no sale for this machine in America."

passing of summer the chances for large earnings are few.

There are finishers and fancy ironers, although the work is in a measure interchangeable. Where machine equipment is insufficient, finishers go over some of the articles by hand, and are usually paid by the week. Fancy ironers are engaged almost exclusively on women's wear,—shirt waists and skirts, ruffles and lace and frills. They work by hand, with gas or steam-heated irons, for puff irons or electric irons are rarely found in Pittsburgh. With changes of fashion, the season of plenty for the fancy ironer ebbs and flows. To the extent that washable frills are worn in days of cold and snow, to the extent that warm thick waists are "out," and thin garments defy the storm, she may be sure of a living through the winter months. Yet now, when light weight clothing is worn in winter as never before, there are 105 fine ironers employed from October to May as against two or three times that number from May to early fall.

One wonders what becomes of the women who lose employment. They are not like the others in the laundry, for they are not old as the women in the washroom are, nor are they of the girls who have worked their way up from one room to another. They have

never gone through all the laundry processes. They seem to be women of a different sort who have first learned in their own homes how to be expert finishers of fine wear. Some are married, and irregular work fits in easily with their life. Many are not. That they do not fit readily into other occupations is evidenced by the fact that so many of them go back to their old places as soon as the warm weather and the influx of ruffled finery begin. "We simply don't know," said a foreman who was beginning to see the case in its serious aspect. "We keep them as long as we can, for they'd starve if we didn't, but what becomes of them afterward, of them and the fifty other women we discharge when work is slack, we don't know."

The hours of work vary in different departments. They vary from laundry to laundry, according to the length of the drivers' routes, the class of trade,—whether it is mainly a family trade, or is from hotels and restaurants,—and partly according to the efficiency of the management. The following schedule is from a small Penn avenue laundry which employs six men and thirty-two girls.

<i>Monday.</i>	<i>Mid-week.</i>	<i>Friday.</i>
7 A. M. Checkers and sorters,		
8 A. M. Mangle girls and starchers,	7-12	7-12
10.30 A. M. Ironers		
-12		
12.45-6	12.45-6	12.45-6
6.45-9 All departments		6.45-9,
		10, or 12
		as the case may be.

Checkers, sorters and washers, must be on hand when the drivers come in, but the first of the week the other laundry workers do not come until later in the morning. The offer of "one day work" made by most laundries is a reason for night work Mondays, although there is a tendency to close early when possible and finish Tuesday morning instead. The ability to do this depends, again, much on the class of trade. One laundry has a double shift of girls, one group employed ten hours a day, with occasional

overtime, and the other group employed ten hours at night. In some cases there is work Saturday morning, but more often, the week is finished Friday night, although this may mean keeping on until after midnight if trade is heavy. It is not the length of the working week so much as the length of the individual working day which is at fault in Pittsburgh laundries. The five-day week cuts down the number of hours to a length well within legal limits, but the length of the day is a different matter. Here enter the factors of public demand for quick work; of overlapping trade in widely separated sections of the city; of the expense of starting machinery for a short day Saturday when at much less expense it can be kept running for a long day Friday; finally of a lax factory law which fixes no closing hour for the work of women.

The irregular hours have unquestionably had an influence on the types of girls in the trade. The low level of wages for the majority is also a determining influence. I have spoken of the possibility of women earning eight dollars and more in the checking and sorting rooms; seven dollars and sometimes eight at the most skilled machine ironing, with a maximum of fifteen dollars for fine ironers in heavy weeks. But this last is counterbalanced by long dull seasons, and not more than a sixth of the girls at the machines receive a seven dollar wage. For the rest, there are gradations of lower and lower pay, down through starching and mangle room, to the three dollar girls at the beginning. For those who stay and have ability to learn, there is no doubt that promotion is possible. But the laundry girls do not stay. The extreme limit of work at the trade is put by managers at four years, and many of them say that they do not keep their girls more than two. The laundry girls change often and marry early. They are spoken of as shifting and unreliable.

The reason for this, I think, does not lie in the nature of the work itself. More than most other industries in which women are employed, the laundry industry has within it trade possibilities for

the ambitious girl who cares to learn the whole of the thing which comes to her to do. In the ironing department, especially, an apprenticeship that would teach a girl the operation of all the machines should lay the basis for a trade that would not only unfailingly command a fair wage, but would be developmental to the girl herself.

Except in a few cases, as I have already said, there is no such teaching. Speed at one thing is the point of emphasis. It is the unusually able girl who is promoted from one room to another. And with this momentum of monotony and lack of opportunity, there enters the positive factor of physical discomfort to count against the development of a strong, trade-trained group of laundry workers. Earlier in this paper, I spoke of the effect of the washroom on the other departments. It is perhaps a result of the excessive heat and steam that among girls who stay long, there is evidence of a tendency toward tuberculosis. In addition to the constant heat from below, there is, in mangle and ironing room, the steam of the drying clothes and the fumes of gas to increase the impurity of the air and the difficulty of

working. Fog and dust always give reason for keeping windows closed, and provisions for forced ventilation are few.

It seems probable that the conditions of laundry work, together with its irregular hours and its association in some instances with domestic service, have tended strongly to draw into its ranks some of the least stable of the unstable group of women wage earners, young girls whose years of collective work are unreasonably brief, who have, if possible, even less of a professional attitude than women workers in other trades.

The general adoption of the later devices for the improved action and safeguarding of machines, rigorous requirement of forced ventilation, and of the placing of washrooms and mangle-rooms so that the discomfort of the workers might be lessened—these measures, all of them in line with what the most far-sighted business management has already done,—would go far to offset the disorganizing tendencies just mentioned, and to build up a group of employees as a whole stronger, more stable and better poised. Such a group is one of the most valuable factors in the success of any industry.

A New Idea in Social Work

[See Frontispiece]

Lawrence Veiller

New York

An experiment, started a few weeks ago by the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the New York Charity Organization Society, promises to open up a new field in social work.

Heretofore the committee in its work of educating the community with regard to the nature of tuberculosis and the methods of prevention to be adopted, has directed its efforts not to any particular class nor to any particular section of the city. Its campaign of education has been carried on with all classes. Lectures have been given in settlements and churches, before labor unions and in connection with its travelling exhibit, but up to the present time no effort has been made to reach the tenement house population in its homes.

Beginning with the Italians, the committee has now inaugurated a plan of house to house visitation—or rather door to door visitation—in the older Italian quarter of the city, the neighborhood bounded by Houston street on the north, Canal street on the south, Marion street on the west and the Bowery on the east, in the Italian settlement located in Mott, Mulberry and Elizabeth streets and neighboring thoroughfares.

Since June 12 an Italian agent has gone from house to house, calling on each family, and leaving with the members an attractive picture of a scene in Venice (shown in greatly reduced size in the frontispiece of this issue). The picture is on a poster twenty by twenty five inches, arranged to be hung on the

walls. The scene is a Venetian canal with a palace and its garden in the foreground and the Capanile in the distance. It was especially chosen because of its bright, gay color and its thoroughly Italian quality. The committee believed that a picture of this kind would especially appeal to the Italians, with their love of color, and that it would be one which they would delight in preserving and hanging on their walls. Had it been possible to obtain an equally attractive picture in color, of the Bay of Naples, this would have been chosen in place of the Venetian scene, as the committee recognized that many more of the Italians in New York come from the neighborhood of Naples than from Venice.

Printed with the picture is simple advice with reference to consumption. The picture bears this legend at the top: "A cough may lead to consumption," and then proceeds to give the following advice:

"If you have a cough or a cold that hangs on, if you even faintly suspect that your lungs are not strong, do not try to cure yourself. Go to a doctor, or to the nearest tuberculosis clinic where you will be treated free of charge if unable to pay."

Then is given the address of the clinic for the particular district in which the poster is being distributed. In New York there are at the present time ten such clinics forming together what is known as the Association of Tuberculosis Clinics. Each one is responsible for a definite district of the city and all people living in that district are required to be treated at that particular clinic.

In grouping the material upon the poster, especial consideration was given to this fact and it was so arranged that in subsequent editions to be distributed in other sections of the city the name and address of the clinic could readily be changed.

On one side of the picture are the following general directions:

"Sunlight, fresh air, good food, temperate habits are the best means of preventing tuberculosis. Keep your windows open day and night summer and winter."

On the other side of the picture is the following:

"Don't spit on the sidewalks or floors or hallways of your homes or schools. It spreads disease. It is also dangerous."

At the bottom beneath the picture is added:

"Tuberculosis is not hereditary but is acquired, and generally preventable. When you must spit, spit in the gutters, or into a spittoon half filled with water."

Then there is a statement that the picture is given with the compliments of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the New York Charity Organization Society with its address.

It will be seen at once that four important results are sought to be accomplished by the distribution of this poster.

First: An attractive picture is given in a friendly spirit to large numbers of the Italian tenement population who keenly appreciate all things artistic and who have little opportunity of indulging this taste in their homes.

Second: Sound advice is given with regard to the nature of tuberculosis and the best methods of prevention.

Third: Persons who are sick are referred to a dispensary or clinic in their own neighborhood and are told that they may be treated there free of charge.

Fourth: A totally new conception is given to the foreign tenement house population, of the importance of ventilation and its effect upon health.

Many interesting questions have arisen in connection with this work. The first which probably presents itself to the average person is: "If this is to be effective among the Italians why is it printed in English?" The committee originally planned to have the poster printed in Italian. Before doing so, however, it was thought best to consult Italians in the city who have special knowledge of the New York Italian population. Dr. Antonio Stella, one of the leading Italian physicians, when consulted expressed his hearty approval of the plan. He said immediately, however, "Do not print it in Italian. The great majority of adult Italians in New York do not read any language, either Italian or English. On the other hand, most of



GIVING THE POSTER TO AN ITALIAN FAMILY.

the children read English and but few of them read Italian. If you want your plan to be successful, print your poster in English. The children will then read it and translate it for their parents into the particular Italian dialect which the family may speak."

Not being willing to rest so important a decision on the advice of one person, even so well-informed and competent an adviser as Dr. Stella, further advice was sought from Father Bernardino Polizzo, an Italian priest of the Church of the Most Precious Blood, located in Baxter street in the heart of the Italian tenement district. Nothing was said to him about having consulted Dr. Stella or of the advice that he had given. When consulted, however, he at once said: "Splendid! But do not print it in Italian. Print it in English," and gave the same reasons that Dr. Stella had given, adding that "whenever he had an important notice to give out in his church, which he wished to be sure reached the members of his congregation, he always had it printed in English, knowing that the children would

take it home and translate it to their parents. To print it in Italian would be throwing away so much money."

Since this poster has been distributed a number of people have commented upon the fact that it has been printed in English instead of in Italian. The question arises: Are Dr. Stella and Father Polizzo right, and is the great mass of the adult Italian population in our large cities unable to read Italian?

In this connection one is reminded of the experience of the Board of Health during the administration of Commissioner Wilson a number of years ago. It was in the beginning of the days of the "summer work" with the tenement population, and the Health Department had prepared with very great care a circular of instruction on the care of babies in hot weather and the importance and necessity of fresh air and proper feeding. It was planned to have these circulars distributed by the million so that they would reach every tenement house family in what then constituted New York city. Besides printing hundreds

of thousands in English large numbers of these circulars were printed in Italian, Yiddish, Bohemian and other languages. This was pioneer work and the health officials were very much gratified with what they had evolved until unfortunately a friend of the commissioner one day called his attention to the Italian version of his carefully prepared circular. In those days the Health Department was located down in Mott street near the present Police Headquarters building in the heart of the Italian section, and apparently the work of having the circular translated into Italian was left to the judgment of an Italian printer in the neighborhood. Commissioner Wilson was greatly disturbed one day shortly after the work was well under way to have a friend ask him what he thought he was doing in distributing these circulars among the Italians. Commissioner Wilson replied that he was giving sound advice to the Italian mothers with regard to the care of their babies. "For instance," he said, "this circular says, 'If the baby is cross and fretful take it for a trip on a ferry boat.'" "Excuse me," said his friend, "that may be what you thought you were saying but it is not what you are saying. This is what the circular says: 'If the infant is wicked and irascible take it for a journey on a coast boat.'"

Irrespective of whether the posters are more useful in English or Italian there is no question about their effectiveness. The work of distribution has been carried on by an Italian-born young woman employed by the committee, who speaks both Italian and English fluently. The young woman employed at the beginning of the work was one who had been treated for tuberculosis at Stony Wold Sanatorium and discharged not many months before as cured. This materially added to her usefulness.

The method employed has been to go through each tenement house in the particular district and call upon every family in the house. A boy has accompanied our agent, carrying with him the bundle of circulars, too heavy for a woman to carry. Convenient sub-stations in the neighborhood have been established through the kindness of proprietors of

various drug stores where the supply of circulars has been kept and where it is replenished from time to time.

Knocking upon the door of each apartment and entering, the committee's agent has offered the poster, explaining in Italian that it is a gift from the Charity Organization Society and that it is intended to prevent consumption, going on and explaining what consumption is, telling them that it is preventable and curable, and generally concluding with a few suggestions as to the importance of keeping the windows open both day and night. After a few days' experience we abandoned saying that the poster was a gift but adopted the very happy expedient, suggested by Dr. Stella, of calling it a "manifest." This was something that was very familiar to the Italians, they having frequently received such official promulgations from the government in the old country.

The majority of the Italians have been delighted with the poster, and many of them have been unable to understand the kindness which has prompted strangers to give them something so attractive. The idea that consumption is not hereditary is to most of them totally new; that it can be prevented is equally novel.

Our agent has found the windows shut in most of the homes she has visited, even when the room was filled with Italian women working on garments. Upon the agent advising them to open the windows, and explaining that the way to keep from getting consumption is to have plenty of fresh air both night and day, the women have as a rule replied that they would all catch cold, and they have seemed horrified at the thought of opening their windows at night, exclaiming that "the night air would surely bring illness." That the average Italian peasant living in a New York tenement should still believe in the danger of the "night air" is not surprising when we consider how this belief has been inculcated in them for generations, especially in districts where the night air is, indeed, a menace because of the mosquitoes carrying with them malaria and fevers of various kinds. Indeed, it is not so very many years since we in America were equally afraid of the night air. Upon

having all these things explained to them, the women in many cases promise to keep their windows open and even to try it at night, saying that they did not know about it before.

Much interest in the picture and much appreciation of it was shown by a woman in a Mott street tenement who said her boy had "bronchitis" and had been coughing for some time but that she could not take him to a doctor as she was unable to pay the fee. The thin form

Another woman, when the poster was given to her and the reason of its distribution explained, broke into tears and said she had lost her son from tuberculosis but a short time ago. "If these had been distributed about two years ago," she added, "my son probably would not now have been in his grave, for at that time we knew nothing about the cure for this disease or of the free places for its treatment."

In those houses populated chiefly by



CHILD TRANSLATING POSTER TO HER FAMILY.

and pale face, together with the cough, easily revealed that he was suffering from tuberculosis, and the woman was told to take him to the nearest tuberculosis clinic where he could get free treatment. "And the medicine," she asked, "Is it free also?" When told that the medicines were also free she could not find words enough to express her gratitude, wondering why such interest was taken in those who were unknown to the society, and above all that it was being done free of cost.

Sicilians the experiences have been somewhat different. Here the poster is regarded sometimes with suspicion and superstition. In one case a woman declined to receive the picture, saying if it were hung upon the walls it would bring disease. Others are unwilling to accept it as a gift, saying that if an attempt is made to collect money for it next week there will be trouble, thus apparently reflecting bitter experiences with agents selling goods.

As the work of distribution has pro-

gressed, the whole neighborhood has gradually become informed about it so that to-day our agent finds as she approaches a tenement house a crowd of people lined up awaiting her, eager to receive the pictures and talking about it and all it means. Even the children follow her from house to house repeating with delight what they have heard her say to the different families she has visited, and running ahead to tell their own families about her and about the pictures that are coming.

The following extracts from her reports indicate to some extent the spirit in which the poster is being received:

"Nearly every family plies me with questions just as they begin to get interested, and the children follow me from door to door, begging to have another look at the picture. By the time I get to the ground floor a mob of children are after me. A little one about three years old kissed the picture while I was showing it to the mother and cried after me.

"At one house a woman had two little ones who coughed and I made it a special point to explain to her about visiting the dispensary, which she promised to do.

"All accept the poster with much gratitude and have wondered at the kindness and generosity of the persons giving it.

"I have become greatly interested in the work and am pleased to see how gladly the poor people hang the poster up.

"A woman in Mulberry street last Friday was so pleased with the poster that she was going to take a picture out of a frame and put the poster in its place. She said God would bless those kind and generous hearted men who thought so much of the people's health. The people seem to be looking for me now as the news has spread all around the neighborhood.

"At Mott street I saw a boy sixteen years old who has consumption. The father being out of work and unable to pay for any more doctors, was trying to get him a free passage for Italy as a doctor had assured him the boy had a good chance to recover providing he had plenty of fresh air. The mother was making cigars at home in order to get

along and said that the odor was doing him harm but that she had to do it in order to get something to eat and to pay the rent. She said that God had answered her prayers by sending me there as she could not bear to part with the boy. She was going to send him to the dispensary right away after I had told her where to go.

"Only two women have thus far refused to accept the poster. One would not even listen to me, and another did not want anything about consumption hanging on her wall.

"At 117 Elizabeth street a woman who was visiting a family where I was leaving a poster, asked me to please give her one also as she had a nephew who has been coughing for a month and as he could not afford to see a doctor she wanted to take him this afternoon to the dispensary. She was glad to know that there really was a place where he could be treated free of charge.

"At 123 Elizabeth street where I left a poster in every apartment, everybody was much pleased to find out that some one is taking so much interest in their health. Here the children followed me from door to door, telling the older women just what I had related all over again. They now all recognize me as the lady who goes around telling people to open their windows and not to spit on the floor.

"I find the children get very much interested in the subject, even more than the older women. All the people accept the poster with pleasure, and on my way down from each house where the doors are open I can see them hanging on the walls."

At the time of writing this article the work of distribution is still going on. 10,000 copies will be distributed before the work is completed and each Italian family living in the particular district will have one of the posters. The cost of the posters is in round figures four cents each; and the cost of distribution thirteen dollars a week. It will probably take from six to eight weeks to finish the work, making the total cost in round figures \$500. for printing and distributing the 10,000 pictures. If the



THE DARK BEDROOM THE BREEDING PLACE OF TUBERCULOSIS.

committee's funds warrant, a similar distribution will be made later on in "Little Italy" further uptown, and it is hoped that it may be possible next fall and winter to make a similar house to house distribution among the Jews, Bohemians and Negroes.

It is the committee's plan in each case to vary the nature of the poster. Among the Italians in Little Italy the same poster will probably be used but the location of the proper tuberculosis clinic for that neighborhood will of course be changed. With the Jews the poster will contain some scene suggesting the home country, possibly a Russian scene, will be selected. The nature of the advice given will be the same in each case.

Heretofore the campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis has been largely a campaign against spitting. The time has now come when a new campaign—a campaign for adequate ventilation—is necessary; ventilation not only in the homes of the people but in workshops, factories, department stores, public conveyances, theaters, churches, synagogues, and places of public assemblage generally.

From the results of this experiment that are thus far apparent, the writer is convinced that this method of educating the population contains possibilities of great moment to the community, not only in the field of tuberculosis prevention but in nearly all fields of social effort.

Convalescent Homes in Boston, New York and Philadelphia

Morris Loeb

New York

While the importance of suitable provision for convalescents has been fully recognized abroad, and public as well as private institutions for their reception abound in Great Britain and the majority of the countries of the European continent, organized efforts in this direction are of very recent origin in this country. Indeed, it may be safely stated that the subject is practically ignored by the great mass of physicians and hospital managers. Individual physicians have frequently raised their voices in support of such a movement; but Boston seems to be the only city in which their advice has been thoroughly heeded. Every now and then a hospital may have set aside a ward for the benefit of patients who had passed the acute stage of disease. But it is quite evident that this would not be an adequate substitute for special pavilions, or for independent institutions, erected and managed directly for the benefit of the convalescent.

As a preliminary study of the present state of convalescent homes in the eastern section of our country, the editor of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS recently sent out an inquiry to all of the institutions whose names and addresses could be ascertained, and replies were received from nineteen; a number failed to respond and, undoubtedly, a number of others were overlooked; so that the results are naturally rather meager and are presented merely in the hope that they may attract attention to the subject, and may elicit such further information that really complete statistics will become available hereafter.

In defining the convalescent home, we ought on the one hand to exclude the sanatoriums for the treatment of chronic complaints—consumption or nervous disorders—and on the other the numerous fresh air homes which are maintained in the summer time for the benefit of city

dwellers. Nevertheless, it is doubtful whether the true convalescent homes do not frequently receive inmates of the latter class. In some cases, these two forms of relief are intentionally combined, and it would be difficult to make a sharp separation in the statistics.

A very important distinction should be made between those homes which are under the direct control of a single hospital, and are practically merely one of its branches, and the independent institutions which gather their inmates from all sources, including the patients of private physicians. For effective administration, the former plan is probably the preferable; but it is doubtful whether it would give adequate results in a city like New York, where the hospital situation is so very complex. Fortunately, the large bequest recently received by St. Luke's Hospital will soon make it possible to compare the advantages of the two plans, and it is also to be hoped that in the near future the large Burke Foundation may develop plans for providing additional facilities. When these two large proposed convalescent homes shall have been built, we may assume that conditions in New York city will be entirely satisfactory.

So far as the writer has been able to ascertain, the following are the homes for convalescents, either under independent management or run as distinct branches of hospitals, in the three cities under inquiry; official replies were received from those marked with two asterisks; about those marked with one asterisk some indirect information was obtained. Homes open only in winter are marked with W, those closed in winter are marked S, M, F and C indicate men, women and children under fourteen, respectively. The address of the application bureau is given only when distinct from that of the home.

BOSTON AND VICINITY

****Convalescent Home of the Massachusetts General Hospital, Waverly.** Admission Bureau: Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston. 33 beds; M. and F.

****Convalescent Home of the Boston City Hospital, 818 Harrison avenue, Boston.** 34 beds. F. and C.

****Convalescent Home of Massachusetts Homeopathic Hospital, 240 School street, Watertown.** Admission bureau: 82 East Concord street, Boston. 20 beds. F. and C.

****Convalescent Home of Children's Hospital, Wellesley Hills.** Admission bureau: Children's Hospital, Boston. 100 (?) beds. C.

****St. Luke's Home for Convalescents, 149 Roxbury street, Boston.** 26 beds. F.

****Milton Home for Convalescents, East Milton, Massachusetts.** 23 beds. F. and C.

***Children's Island Sanitarium, Salem Harbor.** Admission bureau: 37 Blossom street, Boston. 30 (?) beds. S. C.

NEW YORK AND VICINITY

***St. Andrew's Convalescent Hospital, Winter, 211 East 17th street.** 35 beds. Summer, Woodcliff Lake, N. J. 24 beds. F. and C.

****New York Home for Convalescents, 433 East 118th street.** 21 beds. F.

****Isabella Heimath, Amsterdam avenue and 190th street.** 28 beds. M. and F.

****St. Phoebe's Mission House, 125 De Kalb avenue, Brooklyn.** 12 beds. F.

***St. John's Guild, New Dorp, Staten Island.** Large capacity. Opened one winter for convalescents. F. and C. W.

****Convalescent Home of Henry Street Settlement, The Rest, Grand View on Hudson.** 11 beds. Admission Bureau, 265 Henry street, New York. F.

***St. Eleanor's Home, Tuckahoe, N. Y.** 44 beds. M., F. and C.

****Solomon and Betty Loeb Memorial Home for Convalescents, East View, N. Y.** Admission bureau: 356 Second avenue, New York. 100 beds. M., F. and C.

****St. Elizabeth's Convalescent Home, (St. Vincent de Paul.) Spring Valley, N. Y.** Admission bureau: 375 Lafayette street. 40 beds. F. and C.

****Caroline Rest, A. I. C. P. Hartsdale, N. Y.** 100 beds. To be opened. F. and C.

***Blythedale (Ethical Culture Society) Hawthorne, N. Y.** 35 (?) beds. F. and C.

The Presbyterian Rest, 50 N. Broadway, White Plains, N. Y. F.

****Health Home of the Children's Aid Society, W. Coney Island.** Admission bureau: 105 East 22d street. 200 beds. S. F. and C.

****Convalescent and Fresh Air Home, Summit, N. J.** 68 beds. M., F. & C.

****Holiday Farm for Convalescent Children, Rhinecliff-on-Hudson.** 17 beds. S. C.

****Riverbend Home for Convalescents, Wilburtha, N. J.** 16 beds. C.

****The Robin's Nest, Tarrytown, N. Y.** 22 beds. S. C.
Bables Convalescent Home, Sea Cliff, L. I. (?)

PHILADELPHIA AND VICINITY

University, Episcopal and Jefferson Hospitals maintain convalescent wards within the hospital grounds, which do not seem to fit into the scope of this inquiry.

****Richardson Home for Convalescents, Devon, Pa.** Admission bureau: 51 N. 25th street, Philadelphia, Pa. 75 beds. S. (Home kept open this winter as an experiment.) M., F. and C.

***Seaside Home for Invalid Women, Atlantic City, N. J.** Admission bureau: Mercer Memorial House, Atlantic City. 100 beds. S. F.

***Children's Sea Shore Home, Atlantic City, N. J.** Not exclusively a home for convalescents, but receives large numbers of this class. S.

***Jewish Seaside Home for Invalids, Ventnor, N. J.** Admission bureau: 522 Spruce street, Philadelphia. 60 (?) beds. S. F. and C.

So far, Boston alone appears to possess a home maintained by the municipality; all the others mentioned above are maintained by private subscription, two of those near New York being fully endowed (not including those endowed, but not yet established), while at least four others are annually maintained by individuals.

The questions submitted refer to the capacity of the institution, the number of actual inmates, the normal length of stay, the institutions through which applicants come, age, sex and nationality of inmates, and the finances of the institution. The answers rarely covered all these points, and the financial figures could not, in most cases, satisfactorily be analyzed. Possibly, however, the tentative information conveyed in these statistics may excite sufficient interest to cause the managers of the various institutions to report more fully in a subsequent year.

In the figures to be given no attempt has been made to estimate the capacity or attendance at homes from which no information was obtainable; consequently, the actual figures are somewhat larger.

In Boston, 1 home has 20 beds for men throughout the year; 6 homes have 124 beds for women throughout the year; 6 take children, only one reporting 100 special children's beds; 1 home has 30

beds for children in the summer only.

In New York, 3 homes have 56 beds for men throughout the year; 10 homes have 364 beds for women in winter; 12 homes have 394 beds for women in summer; 6 homes have 260 beds for children in winter; 13 homes have 435 beds for children in summer.

In Philadelphia and Atlantic City, owing to the admixture of hospital and fresh air cases, the figures are not significant for our purpose.

The reports on attendance cannot advantageously be summarized at present, because the length of stay varies so considerably, and because the available figures do not differentiate between the seasons at the institutions which are in continuous operation. Since practically every bed is occupied during the summer season, the comparison between homes open throughout the year and those open only in the warmer months would be deceptive. The former usually limit the stay from ten to fourteen days, while the latter report three to four weeks as the prescribed period, with possible extension, and some retain the patients indefinitely. No inference should be drawn from this apparent preference for the summer months, because it may be doubted whether the number of actual convalescents is greater at that period than in the late autumn, after the customary typhoid epidemic, or during the winter, with its bronchial and pulmonary diseases.

The financial reports, as compared with the attendance, indicate a greater economy in the summer homes: this is again partly due to the larger average attendance during those months, and partly to the saving in fuel and light, which form heavy items of winter expenditure. In Boston, the daily *per capita* cost, when it could be calculated, appears to be \$1.30 to \$1.40; in New York, \$.90 to \$1.20; in Atlantic City, about \$.90. In some institutions, however, administrative expenses

and certain salaries are paid by some other agency and do not appear in this *per capita* estimate. While these figures might seem to point to greater economy, when the convalescent home is managed as a separate entity than as a branch of a hospital, there may be local conditions which affect the situation.

After careful study, I believe that a fair standard of comparison might be obtained by dividing the expenditures into two categories: basal outlays for housekeeping, fuel, light, repairs and administration, which must be met without regard to the number of patients; and "individual" outlays for medical and surgical supplies, food, laundry, transportation, etc., which vary directly with the number of patients. Upon such a division, the "individual" *per capita* cost seems to range fairly uniformly between thirty-five cents and fifty cents, showing that the chief difference lies in the relation between the basal expenditure and the average number of patients.

Dr. S. T. Armstrong, of Bellevue Hospital, has recently estimated the maximum cost of construction of a convalescent home at \$1,500 a bed. This is probably low for a small home, and does not include the cost of the ground. Placing the figure at \$2,000, and capitalizing the liberal daily estimate of \$1.20 at four per cent it is evident that the endowment necessary for equipment and annual maintenance need not exceed \$12,000 a bed for an institution of moderate size, which is less than one-half of the amount required for a corresponding hospital bed. Since the existence of a convalescent home would not alone relieve the overcrowding of hospitals directly by justifying the earlier discharge of many patients, but also indirectly by raising the average vitality of the community, American cities ought to realize the true economy of this form of sanatorium.

Social Forces

By the Editor

THE PRESIDENT'S AGRICULTURAL COMMISSION

Some good natured banter, some cheap and stupid ridicule and a large amount of appreciative and discriminating approval have greeted the appointment of the President's Commission to investigate the social economy of rural communities. For our own part we know of scarcely any subject more deserving of serious and thoroughgoing inquiry. The appointment of the President's Commission is not an impulsive or isolated act but is the logical culmination of careful consideration given to the subject for a long time and consultation with men who have given years of disinterested service toward the solution of the problems with which the commission is now formally to deal.

The great needs of rural communities may be stated under three main heads: The need for improvement in the technical processes of agriculture; the need for better business organization, especially in the marketing of crops, but also in the purchase of implements and the co-operative use of machinery on the smaller farms; and social amusements.

The Department of Agriculture, the state agricultural colleges, the agricultural experiment stations, the farmers' institutes, and farm journals are contributing toward the supply of the first of these needs. It must be confessed that in spite of local and occasional progress and in spite of the large crops made possible by exceptionally favorable conditions, we have little of which to boast on the whole in the manner in which as a nation we are making use of our agricultural resources. The farm lands of America might readily produce vastly better crops if the brains which have been devoted to, let us say, the steel industries or the textile industries, or even to railway management and department stores, had been applied to the problems of selecting and cultivating crops.

The silly and sentimental tributes which it has been the fashion to pay to farmers as a class regardless of their actual achievements or failures long since ceased to satisfy any self-respecting farmer. Discriminating praise based upon actual success in developing the properties of the land or improving a breed of stock has its value and we would by no means deny that there are many farmers who deserve it.

In the marketing of crops farmers as a whole have also fallen behind manufacturers, although the daily newspaper which now penetrates everywhere has ransomed a very large number from the uncertain and arbitrary conditions under which their crops and stock were formerly sold. Dairymen and fruitgrowers are still too often at the mercy of buyers merely from a lack of business organization which depends upon the growth of the co-operative spirit. Although these technical and economic problems deserve a certain amount of attention, we believe that they are to a large extent working themselves out, not as rapidly as one might desire, but still in such a way as to insure that eventually a given amount of labor and money will yield on the average far better returns than in the past. We hope that the President's Commission, while recognizing these problems and devising perhaps some ways of improving the co-operation by

technical and educational agencies now at work, or likely to be established, will nevertheless give special attention to the social problem.

We believe the real difficulty to be the tendency toward a diminished population due to a marked decrease in the size of native families. One school district in rural New York which twenty years ago had forty children and a prosperous district school, counts to-day only five children of school age all of whom are very properly sent to the village school, while the district maintaining its organization finds the allowance from the state treasury more than enough to pay for the full expense of their tuition. This is typical of a tendency which would have attracted far more attention if it had not been to some extent concealed in statistics of population by the larger families of foreign parentage. In many parts of the country the high price of farm land steadily drives the larger families to the towns and keeps on the farm the family with one or two children. Relatively fewer people are needed to do the farm work that requires to be done and in really productive regions land is so expensive that the boy who was formerly able to earn a farm, beginning as a renter, is unable to make any such arrangement except under exceptional circumstances. The very prosperity of the farmer operates indirectly to reduce the number of growing children in a farming community. Many country school districts that could support a flourishing baseball nine less than a generation ago can scarcely contribute a fielder under present conditions. The problem therefore is precisely the opposite to that which confronts the social worker in the congested quarters of the city. There are children on the farms, but they are so few in number and so far apart that organization of their play and recreation is essential. On Mott street in New York a single block may crowd to its utmost capacity the palatial court of the public school building with children ready for marching, dancing, or such games as can be organized with a compact mass of children. One hundred and fifty miles away if growing children are to be kept on the farm there must be established a miniature Coney Island or an Atlantic City board walk to which people will come because others are there and because there will be an opportunity for the fun and fellowship which are there becoming so rare. Watch the tens of thousands who ceaselessly parade the five miles of Atlantic City's board walk. Notice that they are not watching the sea, not to any extent patronizing the booths or making use of the amusement devices. Some of them, of course, are doing these things,—there is some drinking in the saloons and some bathing in the sea, but the great majority are merely moving in the crowd and enjoying it. They are not even using the whole of the five miles but are mainly packing themselves, the more closely the better, into the central mile. There is good air, there is exercise, but above all there is society; and if the gentlemen who constitute the President's Commission will stand in the midst of this procession for a few hours, or let themselves be carried in its movement and share its spirit they will understand better than any one can tell them what it is that rural communities need. In scores of communities a railroad corporation has to some extent met this need and has shown that on a small scale Coney Island or Atlantic City may be reproduced without the sea, or indeed without any other original natural attraction. That the telephone has helped to make the farmer satisfied has become a commonplace, but this form of amusement is monopolized largely by the adults. Let the exiled Carnegies who wish to benefit their native Dunfermlines—and American cities and towns are full of prosperous business men who must have such sentimental attachment for their birthplaces—provide some scheme for rational recreation and center of social attraction for the young people and they will do more than can be done in any other single way to remedy the adverse conditions which the President's Commission is to investigate. If only in the interests of the checking of over-population in the cities it is to be hoped that success will crown their efforts.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

A NEW SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

In response to the demand for commercial education of a distinctly university grade Northwestern University opened its School of Commerce, August 5, in the central business district of Chicago. Its announcement affirms the dearth of men properly qualified for the more responsible positions to be a striking feature of modern business life. It also claims that now, as never before, the highest efficiency involves ability to see business problems in all their relations, and that men who have not been trained to take a broad view of business activities can no longer hope to rise to positions of command and influence. The school aims to meet the needs of Chicago and the central west on a scale and standard equal to the New York University School of Finance and Accounts and the University of Pennsylvania School of Accounts and Finance. It has been established through the co-operation of the Chicago Association of Commerce, the Illinois Society of Certified Public Accountants, the Chicago Chapter of the American Institute of Banking, and individual business men who formed a Board of Guarantors to underwrite the enterprise.

Supplementing the specific technical courses and yet considered as fundamental as they, more general courses are offered in practical economics, dealing with economic principles underlying business activity; in industrial organization and management, treating not only strictly commercial and business detail but the policy of management toward laborers, including the open or closed shop; and the general political and industrial condi-

tions under which modern business is transacted. It is certainly refreshing to find included in the technical training of business men, undertaken by a university, the announcement of adequate instruction on Labor Problems in Different Parts of the World, The Development of Trade Unions, Present Status of Unionism, Influence of Unions in Business Organizations, Different Policies Toward Unions. It is equally impressive to find the treatment on a broad academic basis of such vital relations as those which practically exist between a business and the city, the state and the nation; between a man's business and his citizenship; between the business and civic functions of commercial bodies; between government regulation of business and the business interests regulated; between public-service industries and the conditions of the towns and cities in which they are located.

Some courses will be given four evenings each week to appeal to young men of high school, or equivalent training, who only have evening time at command. The day work will be continued in the regular courses at the university, the last year of which may be taken in Chicago, however, by those preparing for a business career, where they will be in close contact with commercial activities of the city and can study typical, up-to-date concerns in various lines of business. The high standards, practical methods and efficient management of the school are assured by the appointment of Professor Willard E. Hotchkiss as dean, and a capable staff of academic instructors, whose work in the class room is to be supplemented by special lectures under some of Chicago's ablest business men and manufacturers.

REPORT OF NEW YORK'S HOSPITAL COMMISSION

With the main recommendation contained in the report of the Commission on Hospitals appointed by Mayor McClellan of the city of New York we are in entire accord. This recommendation is to the effect that by amendment to the charter of the city there should be created a department of public hospitals to be administered by a commissioner of public hospitals to be appointed by a board of trustees. It is proposed that this board of trustees shall be appointed by the mayor and that its members, not less than seven in number, shall serve without compensation. This new department would have charge of all existing public hospitals, sanatoriums, infirmaries and ambulance relief stations, with authority to extend the public hospital system of the city, as rapidly as means are granted for that purpose, by the establishment of new hospitals and other agencies for the care of the sick, and by the extension of the facilities, wherever necessary, of those already established. The department would also have charge of the ambulance system with authority to make rules and regulations for its government. The department of public hospitals would thus succeed to all of the duties now devolving upon the Board of Trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, to the duties of the Department of Public Charities, so far as these relate to the administration of hospitals, and to the duties of the Department of Public Health, so far as these relate to the maintenance of sanatoriums for consumptives or hospitals for contagious diseases.

The plan by which the commissioner who is to have the executive responsibility is to be chosen by an unpaid board is taken over from the plan by which Bellevue and its allied hospitals have been managed for several years, and as a means of insuring the continuance of effective co-operation with the Department of Health in regard to contagious diseases, it is proposed that the commissioner of public health be made a member ex-officio of the proposed board of trustees and that this board appoint a committee

of three from its own membership to have supervision of the hospitals for contagious diseases with the commissioner of health as chairman ex-officio of such committee.

It is recommended that the police powers of the Board of Health and its authority over all cases of contagious disease "be carefully safeguarded and preserved unimpaired through suitable provision in the amended charter."

The plan thus briefly outlined appears to us simple, logical and practicable. If adopted it would displace a system or rather a condition of affairs which is accidental and open at many points to inevitable criticism. The Department of Public Charities, according to the report, now administers nine hospitals which in 1907 cared for 39,305 patients, and has two hospitals under construction. The Department of Health administers five hospitals and one sanatorium which cared for 8,995 patients. The Board of Trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals administered four hospitals which cared for 42,815 patients. All of the departments named make provision for patients suffering from tuberculosis and are extending their facilities for the care of such patients. The public hospital facilities of the city are inadequate and there is pressing need for additions. The facilities of the city, both present and projected, are most inequitably distributed. Even the courts find difficulty in interpreting provisions of the charter defining the jurisdiction of the departments of the city government, a decision having recently been made after the city had appropriated money to the Department of Public Charities for a tuberculosis hospital, that it is the sole function of the Department of Health to construct public hospitals for the treatment of contagious, pestilential or infectious diseases. This divided responsibility and control have prevented the formulation of any definite policy to meet the growing needs of the city in respect to the care of its sick. The commission rightly says that the city might quite as logically have three police departments or three fire departments to attend to its business.

THE REPORT NARROW IN SCOPE

While the commission has thus arrived at what appears to us the proper solution of the problem of public hospital administration in Greater New York, we confess to a feeling of disappointment that it has not dealt more fully and decisively with many of the questions which would appear to us to fall within the scope of its work as outlined in the letter by Mayor McClellan to the chairman. This letter bears date of January 31, 1906, and the report is dated July 28, 1908. For two years and a half, therefore, the commission has been deliberating upon the hospital problem, taking testimony, collecting information and maturing its views. No doubt in the appendices of the report which have not yet been made public there will be much valuable information, and numerous recommendations must have been made that were worthy of consideration whether they were finally accepted or rejected. We look in vain in the text of the report of the commission for any indication that either the recommendations or the information that may have been obtained by the commission itself have been considered in detail or that its recommendations have been to any great extent influenced by them. It is conceivable that the commission adopted the view that their function was solely to present a general scheme of hospital administration, leaving to the authorities appointed under the proposed scheme all responsibility for dealing with such questions as the location of hospitals, the creation of a proper ambulance system, the reorganization of the medical administration, problems of hospital construction and other details. If so, it would have seemed reasonable for the commission to have announced this policy promptly and to have concluded its labors at a much earlier date. Such criticism, however, may appear ungracious and we have no desire to underestimate the possible advantage of confining the report largely to the central recommendation for the unification and concentration of the system of public hospitals. Even in this respect, however, the report

would have been of greater value if there had been presented more fully the reasons for transferring the hospitals for contagious diseases from the Department of Public Health and for abandoning the system of control by a board of trustees, in view of the apparent satisfaction which this system has given at Bellevue, in favor of a plan for administration by a commissioner to be selected by a board of trustees who have otherwise only advisory powers. A careful study of the relative advantages and disadvantages respectively of a commissioner and a board of trustees, for which the present situation in New York city gives ample opportunity, would have seemed to be an appropriate feature of the report. There is no attempt to set forth the natural and proper division of work between the Department of Health and the department of public hospitals, although it would seem as if this were an obvious preliminary task. The commission has dealt only superficially with questions of the size and location of hospitals and the future needs of the city, although the mayor expressly stipulated that they should inquire into these matters, and added that he would expect it "to consider the entire hospital situation of the city of New York," and "to make a complete investigation of the whole subject."

While the commission has thus fallen short of its opportunity to make a comprehensive, scholarly and convincing report on the whole subject, it has nevertheless set forth clearly and convincingly the need for a change in the general administration of the hospitals and has proposed a plan which, if adopted, will make possible a logical, adequate and effective system, though it will by no means insure its creation. If the plan proposed should not be adopted it would be possible to remedy many of the defects of the existing situation by conference and mutual agreement among the departments concerned, especially if a strong position in support of such policy should be taken by the head of the municipal administration to whom the heads of departments are responsible. The fact that such a body was appointed in the first place would indicate that Mayor

McClellan appreciates the importance of such changes as they now recommend. Whether the remedy is legislative, as the commission proposes, or chiefly administrative, to be brought about by the voluntary action of municipal departments, is a question upon which there is perhaps room for difference of opinion.

MUNICIPAL INSURANCE AGAINST IDLENESS

An interesting system of insurance against idleness in Strassburg is reported by Vice-Consul W. A. Leonard of Kehl.

On December 27, 1906, the city council of Strassburg adopted rules and regulations for such insurance. The city of Strassburg, in order to minimize unemployment as much as possible and to have an indirect control of the situation, has offered to give an extra allowance of 50 per cent in addition to that which any industrial society in the city contributes to its members who are involuntarily unemployed, provided, of course, the conditions laid down in its rules and regulations are complied with.

According to a report of the city council recently published, the introduction of this system of insurance has proved to be such a success in Strassburg, that no less than fifty cities in Germany have written inquiries to the local authorities concerning the workings of the system, with a view of introducing it into their own municipalities.

Twenty different industrial societies, comprising a membership of about twenty-five per cent of the workmen of Strassburg, applied for membership within a month after the adoption of the rules and regulations by the city council. Of these twenty societies twelve received the guaranteed support, while the other eight, on account of their prosperous condition and plenty of work, did not need to take advantage of the city's offer.

The city was called upon to pay 1,900 marks (\$452) in 1907, while industrial societies paid 8,000 marks (\$1,904) to its members for such insurance. The apparent inconsistency of the city not paying 4,000 marks (\$952)—50 per cent of the sum paid out by the societies—is ex-

plained by the fact that all the idle workmen who received support from their respective societies did not comply in all particulars with the city's rules and regulations, hence were not entitled to the extra allowance, the two chief reasons being a residence of less than a year in the city and the failure of the workmen to report regularly at the city employment bureau.

This insurance system does not reach all the laborers, in particular the unskilled classes who belong to no industrial societies. It is true that less than twenty-five per cent of the laborers at the beginning of this year came under the provision of the city's allowance guaranty, but the director of the local employment bureau says that the percentage of workmen belonging to industrial societies has increased since the city introduced this system and that the percentage will undoubtedly continue to increase. These insurance rules and regulations will encourage the organization of industrial societies whose aim is to increase proficiency in their respective trades and educate their members generally, and eventually the great majority of laborers, so far as unemployment is concerned, will be under the control of the city through these societies.

There is no law to exclude private employment agencies, but the few that exist in this particular consular district only handle house servants and are insignificant compared with the city bureaus. The Germans recognize that the activities of private employment agencies tend to shift laborers from place to place and cause too many changes for the good of employers and employes; hence the municipal governments prefer to carry on this business at their own expense rather than permit these private concerns to have the field to themselves and influence laborers to give up their positions in many cases merely to be privileged to again place the same laborer elsewhere in order to secure compensation for such services.

Fifteen different municipalities of Alsace-Lorraine, ranging in population from 5,000 to 175,000, conduct employment bureaus which aim to keep in close touch with the various organizations of

employers and employees. In the smaller towns the directors of these bureaus are usually acquainted personally with the employers and most of the employees, and in every case it is the aim of the city to give the directorship of the employment bureaus only to city officials who can work harmoniously and effectively with employers and laborers.

In many of the cities employers never think of turning to anyone but the city employment bureau for help, and industrial organizations likewise depend upon this agency to place its members when they are out of work. In some cases there is a contract between certain trade organizations and the city bureaus, to the effect that only the city shall have the privilege of placing its members. Such fixed agreements, however, have not always been found practicable, because there may be times when a private agency can to advantage find employment for one or more of its laborers, which privilege such a contract naturally forbids.

The co-operation with hospitals, cheap but sanitary lodging and boarding houses, city charities, house-renting agencies (a list of the vacant dwellings being kept by the city), poorhouses, etc., is an important feature. The director of the Strassburg bureau says that the city charities work in co-operation with his office so that no one can get any help from the city without a proper card having first been filled out for him by the employment office, attesting that he is either incapable of working or that the city can furnish no work. This system leaves practically no field for tramps and beggars, because if they are really in want they will get assistance from the city either in the form of employment or temporary support.

WAGNER IN PLACE OF RAG TIME.

It is announced from Newark, N. J., that at the many band concerts given in the parks during this summer by eleven bands, all ragtime music has been tabooed. The selections have been of a semi-classical or classical character, with certain concerts devoted exclusively to the music of Wagner, Strauss, etc. At

Rochester, New York, where the park commission maintains a band of its own, which is said to be one of the best park bands in the United States, the fifth annual musical festival of the parks took place one July evening. It was estimated carefully that 40,000 people, or about a fifth of the total population of the city, were present. In the afternoon the first part of the program was devoted exclusively to Wagner and the second part exclusively to Verdi. The evening numbers included selections from Parsifal, compositions of Beethoven and Rubinstein; the Pilgrims' Chorus, by the united German singing societies; and By Babylon's Wave and the Hallejuah Chorus by a large mixed chorus that had received long training. It would appear, as it has appeared so many times before, that the public is ready for good entertainment if only it will be offered at a cost no greater than the poor. In this case, while the concerts themselves were free, two street car rides at five cents each were required by nearly all who attended, most of the audience had to choose between sitting on the ground or standing up, and a crowd of 40,000 persons, requiring transportation by a single car line, had to anticipate considerable discomfort in getting back and forth—conditions that might fairly be considered to put this "free" concert in the expense class of, at least, the cheaper theaters.

"A CITY SAVING ITSELF"

In dedicating "Small Park No. 1" on the West Side of Chicago, August 1, Barnard A. Eckhart, formerly president of the West Park Commissioners, strikingly said, "In these playgrounds and in their work lie the beginnings of social redemption of the people in large cities. They furnish the spectacle of a 'city saving itself,' of the people of a great city finding nature and God by finding their neighbors and themselves." In securing the tax levy and projecting the plans for the first three small parks in the most congested districts where the most of Chicago's working people live, Mr. Eckhart did his part well in "finding his

neighbors." The prophesies made by visitors from other cities to the recreation centers of the South Side, that the example set there "would catch like wild fire," was first fulfilled by this action of the West Park commissioners, with the North Side closely following suit. The instant response made by the people in the midst of whom these centers are located and the large and constant use to which all classes and all ages put these parks are sure to create demands for their multiplication not only in Chicago but in other cities. The human touch is everywhere seen in the provisions of this new Chicago park, not only in the ample swimming pool where the boys already swarm like eels, and in the wading pond for little children, with provision for heating the water when it will add to their comfort, but even more in the roof garden under a pergola prepared for a resting place where elderly people may spend their summer evenings.

THE ABSINTHE EVIL ATTACKED

At last the French government is beginning to realize the social and economic cost of the absinthe evil. Thousands of prominent Frenchmen from all professions and callings have given their endorsement to a bill making the sale of absinthe a penal offense throughout the country. The measure has been introduced in the Chamber of Deputies and a few days after its introduction Switzerland, through a national referendum, decided to prohibit the manufacture and sale of the drink. The majority in favor of prohibition in Switzerland was more than 80,000. Has the "tidal wave" reached Europe?

Chelsea House: A Self-Supporting Home for Working Girls

Alice B. Fox and Edith M. Hadley

A vivid account of a working girl's experiences in searching for a respectable boarding house was given in Dorothy Richardson's *Long Day*, published about

two years ago, but long before this book was written the need for houses like Trowmart Inn, the Frances and Chelsea House was keenly felt. During the past five years many houses have been opened, unrelated in management, but all more or less with the same aim—to supply a comfortable and congenial home for the working women and girls of the city. The organizations just entering the field naturally wish to profit by the experiences of their predecessors, and so many questions concerning the rates, rules and management have been asked that the managers of Chelsea House, New York, feel that a brief statement of their failures and successes may be of interest to others concerned in similar enterprises.

From the first, one of the fundamental aims has been to make the house entirely self-supporting, wherein it differs from many of the other houses. The idea has been to conduct an independent boarding house, making the income from board and lodging cover all expenses, yet by careful management giving greater opportunities for congenial surroundings and social life than are offered by the average cheap boarding house patronized by working women. This has proved a difficult problem, becoming more so as living expenses increased, but since August, 1905, when the present house was first occupied, the ideal of self-support has been maintained. To do this the board of managers found it must relinquish the long-cherished dream of providing a home for those who could pay but three to three and a half dollars a week; for each year \$2,040 must be raised for rent, about \$1,500 for wages and over \$4,000 for food.

Through the interest of girls belonging to a church club, the house was first started. They wished a home where they could get good beds and food, and especially where they could receive their friends, for at that time there were few boarding houses in the vicinity of Twentieth street except those houses from which the girl met her "gentleman friend" on the corner, or, worse still, entertained him in her hall bedroom. A board of managers interested in these girls was formed, a house in Twenty-first street,

west of Ninth avenue, which rented for \$1,300 a year, and a house mother and servants were procured. The managers' capital consisted of a promise of one year's rent, if needed, and a fund of \$744.25 to buy the necessary furniture and other incidentals. Before the first annual meeting the need of a cash capital for emergencies was so apparent that \$2,000 was given for this purpose, this cash capital to be kept for use in case of a deficit in the income from board. The plan is to repay the capital fund as soon as a surplus in the income makes repayment possible.

The venture in the Twenty-first street house failed to be self-supporting. It failed because, unless there were twenty-five girls in the house at three and a half to five dollars a week for fifty-two weeks in the year, rent, wages, food, fuel and light expenses could not be paid. The managers had calculated on the basis that Chelsea House would always be full, not even taking into consideration the long summer vacation, when many girls are unemployed for two months and return to their homes, or the fluctuations of various trades, such as dressmaking and millinery. The treasurer's first annual report, covering a period of fourteen months, showed an income of \$4,732.19, and expenses amounting to \$5,810.87. Fortunately for the life of the Chelsea House, there was the reserve fund to fall back upon, and after the first experience the managers felt that by enlarging their accommodations and slightly increasing the rates the proportionate expenses could be reduced and they would be able to succeed. This optimism has been more than justified, and since the occupancy of the present quarters, 434 West Twentieth street, all expenses have been met—rent, provisions and repairs—from the income. The appreciation of the girls who have gained a real home, where their independence is respected to the extent of allowing them latch keys, and the invaluable co-operation of a competent and sympathetic house mother, have

contributed to make the house the long-striven-for success. The wages of the girls living at Chelsea House range from seven to fifteen dollars, averaging ten and a half dollars, and their occupations cover many branches of industry. The house accommodates thirty-six girls, who pay from four to six dollars a week for board and lodging, including lunch. There are seventeen bedrooms—five single rooms, one room for four girls, and the others arranged for two or three occupants. There is also a large drawing room, a dining room and four bathrooms. The work of the house is done by a cook, kitchen maid, waitress, chambermaid and a laundress, who comes two days of the week.

A few statistics quoted from the last annual report of the treasurer, February, 1907, to February, 1908, may be of interest. The receipts amounted to \$8,711, and the disbursements during the year—\$2,040 for rent; \$4,149.31 for provisions, \$1,619 for wages, including the house mother's salary; \$615.65 for fuel, \$65.47 for incidentals and \$15 for water tax.

For a house to be self-supporting several factors must combine. The rooms must be kept practically full at all times, and no loss can be incurred by reserving rooms without full payment during the short vacations; prompt payment of board must be enforced, and economy must be the constant rule in catering, the use of the gas and the care of the furniture. The girls constantly improve in keeping their rooms in order, and have not only a pride in the house, but look upon it in somewhat of a possessive sense. "Where is your home?" asked one of the managers, who was dining there this winter. "Why, Chelsea House is my home," answered the girl with pride, and this seems to be the attitude of most of the girls. So, while the financial success of Chelsea House has been a gratification to the managers, far more so has been the attainment of a homelike atmosphere and the co-operative interest of the girls.

The Religion of a Democrat¹

Reviewed by Graham Taylor

Under what is really an autobiographic title, Charles Zueblin withdraws the veil that hides the struggle to align, if not to identify, democracy and religion, which is silently taking place in many hearts equally devoted to both. Indeed one is at a loss to know whether to describe the view point of the author as predominantly that of a deep religious nature, struggling to reconcile his earliest views of the authority of religion with the freedom of modern democracy, or as that of one unreservedly committed to democracy, who is seeking for himself and it the religious ideals, motives and sanction, without which neither it nor he can do.

Although his attitude is distinctly critical of the current views of both religion and democracy, yet his aim and spirit are always reverent and his criticism constructive, in dealing with what to him are the two supreme claims and interests in the world. On that account the struggle is all the more severe to keep religion and democracy not only from being incompatible with each other, but also paramount. Religion, however, is to him distinctly humanitarian and not theocratic in its essence. Its variations are due not so much to different historical or philosophical sources as to personal differences in temperament. Those who may criticise him for over-emphasizing the temperamental element in religion as decisive, are likely to be awakened by his opening chapter to the under-emphasis given by theologians and ecclesiastical historians to this elusive, but none the less determining, factor in the religious life of the individual, of generations and of races.

In treating both "the constraint of orthodoxy" and "the decay of authority," he broadly extends the area of the discussion into the spheres of politics and custom. He candidly admits the necessity for the authoritativeness of each one's own ideals and convictions and a consensus of judgment. But he makes both so inherently

subjective as to leave little or no practical basis either for the organization of people having common religious convictions into a church, or for law enough to establish and maintain the state. Nevertheless Professor Zueblin's whole plea is for enough of a state to be supreme, to organize society, to synthesize, moralize and democratize all human wants. "Democracy," which to him is equivalent to the state, "means nothing less than the life of all, by the co-operation of all, for the welfare of all." To this state he regards "a national organization of universal religion" as necessary as "a national organization of humanitarianism." The one seems to him no more incongruous than the other. While there can be no longer a national religion, he affirms that "a common faith of the whole people can be conceived and is in need of organization." And yet he so roundly insists that "every individual must have his own religion, regardless of the ecclesiastical authority to which he may hold allegiance," that it is difficult to imagine any practical basis for organizing the common faith. It would not be impracticable, and would undoubtedly be beneficial to open the public school buildings on Sunday for moral instruction at the expense of the state. "It would in no way interfere," as he says, "with the privilege of some people to worship privately and independently, but it would insure moral guidance for all." His plea for this is well taken: "All doctrines may be preached on the street, or in the church, but none can lack a spiritual home, where beauty, culture and morality may be united. Democratize morality; democratize knowledge; democratize taste—and secure the synthesis of these, reconciling the sacred and the secular, by democratizing Sunday." Such a synthesis, however, is not likely to be possible until religion and patriotism become to the majority, what they are to him,—a common spirit. Then neither he nor we will have any difficulty with the orthodoxy, the authority, or the organization of that spirit, of which Professor Zueblin writes out of his very heart, and which he has so finely exemplified in his work all over the land.

¹ The Religion of a Democrat, by Charles Zueblin. Price \$1.00. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS

The Delinquent

Samuel J. Barrows, Department Editor

Georgia's Lease System—Maryland Investigations—Probation in New Zealand—Canadian Juvenile Courts—Prisoners as Harvesters

GEORGIA'S LEASE SYSTEM

From time to time during a number of years the people of Georgia have been stirred on account of the abuses connected with their convict lease system, but all efforts have hitherto proved futile to dislodge a system rooted in cruelty and corruption. Fresh reports of dishonesty and abuse supported by ample evidence have again aroused the humane people of the state and the press has taken up the matter with a vigor of criticism and indignation which is representative of popular feeling. For some time an investigation has been going on before a legislative committee, which the *Atlanta Chronicle* says "is going to develop one of the worst scandals in this or any other state if it is only carried far enough."

Many criticisms have been passed on the convict system of Georgia by observers from other states, but it has been possible to attribute these to prejudice or defective information; it is refreshing now to see the thoroughness and determination with which the press of the state is taking up the matter. The time for excuse and apology has passed. The search light has been turned on by the people of Georgia themselves and condemnation is universal and intense. The *Columbia State* says:

"An extra session of the Georgia Legislature may be necessary to receive and act upon the report of the committee that is investigating the appalling crime of the Georgia convict lease system. It will be worth more than the cost of a dozen extra sessions to cut that fetid burden from the neck of Georgia.

"There have been convict brokers and convict breakers; there has been graft and brutality and murder. The evidence shows that there has been dealing in human beings for profit; and no American slaves were ever so cruelly treated. Leopold in the Congo furnishes the only parallel."

D. T. Speed of Atlanta as quoted in a southern paper said:

"Our people knew that abuses flourished, but they never dreamed that such a horrible situation existed until the Atlanta newspapers laid bare the ugly facts. Probably some of the stories may have been exaggerations, but it is known that convicts have been beaten to death by brutal agents of the men who hired them of the state and whose only interest in them was to get all the work possible out of the poor

wretches. I remember slavery days distinctly, and am sure that the black bondsmen of Georgia were never treated with anything like the inhumanity that has been the fate of these convicts."

Political feeling may develop in the scandal which implicates not a few persons in responsible positions; but the investigation has passed beyond the stage of hush and compromise. The *Savannah News* says:

"In the new phases that are being presented cruelty to convicts is being forced into the background to some extent, and the convict lessees and parties with whom they are connected in one way or another are being forced to the front. It is probable that efforts are being made to hush the scandal up, but they will prove unavailing. The blaze has been started and the fire will go on until the material that feeds it is exhausted. All the facts that can be brought out will be given publicity, and the public will learn for the first time, in all probability, the ins and outs of the convict lease business.

"Every new development is an additional argument for the abolishing of the system. It is apparent that it cannot be continued without scandals, no matter how strict the laws for the protection of the convicts may be. The system itself is so inherently bad that no amount of legislation will make it acceptable to the people. The only thing to do, therefore, is to get rid of it as quickly as the state's financial condition and the time needed for instituting another system will permit."

CENTRALIZED AUTHORITY NEEDED

The Holder bill which passed the house, will make it possible for counties to combine in working their convicts; but it is to be hoped that neither the people nor the Legislature will be content with any half way measure. The system of county control is at the bottom of many of the evils of the convict lease system and ought to make way for a system of state control. But a system of centralized authority alone will not remedy the evils of leasing and peonage which ought to be absolutely abolished and replaced by more modern, humane and reformatory method. The fact that the counties under the present system make money for their school fund ought not to blind them to the great cost at which such money is made. The *Augusta Chronicle* recognizes this and says:

"We must recognize that the punishment for crime is one of the burdens incident to civilization, and the expense attendant upon its punishment is as much a part of the expenses of government as the support of the legislative, executive and judicial establishment, providing for the public defense, and the payment of the public debt. The very root and foundation of our present penitentiary system is an effort to escape this burden, and actually to turn the punishment of crime into a means of public revenue! Scandal and shame are the inevitable results of such a policy."

The press of neighboring states has helped to fan the flame of public indignation and to point to a more rational way. The Washington *Herald* says:

"It is not necessary here to go into the details of the tragedies that have occurred in various convict camps; of sick prisoners, unable to work, being left chained to the ground to die unattended; of white men, unable to perform the task of labor imposed upon them by the masters who have bought them, held to the ground by negroes while they were flogged into unconsciousness; of ill feeding, lack of medicine, lack of clothes, lack of decency—of all these things there has been far too much. Man's inhumanity to man could go no further than it has done under the convict lease system of Georgia. It is time, not only for the good name of Georgia, but for the good name of the United States and of the American people, that these horrors should cease.

"Apart from regarding the convicted men as money making chattels for the state, the whole system is ineconomic and wasteful, and surely one must doubt whether education by means of money wrung from such suffering as has occurred in the convict camps can really benefit the state."

LOUISIANA'S EXPERIENCE

Louisiana after a long and painful experience with the lease system succeeded in abolishing it. The experience of that state shows what may be done in Georgia. The New Orleans *Item* makes an interesting comparison:

"Our Angola farm is not yet ideal. Our Prison Board is planning a general scheme of improvement. But it is self-supporting, directly under the control of state officials, who are directly responsible to the people; it marks an advance in civilization over the old method of selling convicts to irresponsible contractors, and it means that our state has realized that there is a more enlightened method of dealing with the problem and responsibility which the criminal imposes upon society than by stamping out what little good may be left in him by body maiming and soul soddening brutality and neglect.

"Knowing the good that has been wrought here, merely by abolishing the convict lease system, the *Item* hopes to see Georgia soon remove this blot from its system. It is not to be believed that the present movement will fail. All the good people of Georgia want it to succeed. Only the influence of a few powerful interests which profit by the cheapness of the labor wrung from the state's criminality are lined up to perpetuate the infamous system. These influences have controlled legislatures in the past, but they can not block the will of an aroused people determined to enforce the claims of justice and humanity against the plots of greed and the venality of public servants."

To replace the Georgia convict lease system the Mobile, Alabama *Register* proposes a farm and industrial system:

"Why not try the farm and industrial system where convicts work in the open air, learning something of agriculture or in workshops where they acquire other useful skill and knowledge; instead of in mines, as in Alabama, where the prisoners not only learn practically nothing which will be of any value upon their release, but run constant risk of consumption and other deadly or debilitating diseases, and re-enter the world upon release either broken in health or irredeemably case hardened, or both."

MARYLAND INVESTIGATIONS

The Maryland Prisoners' Aid Association has been doing some earnest and effective work in its investigations this summer. The facts it has brought to light are not pleasant but it is important that they should not be left in the dark. Among other things they have denounced the Belair jail as "a mediaeval dungeon," as "inhuman, antiquated, and ineffectual." In the Annapolis jail there are no beds of any character in the cells and prisoners presumably innocent and awaiting trial are compelled to sleep on the floor.

PRISONERS AND MOSQUITOES

It has not usually been considered very important to protect prisoners from the attacks of mosquitoes. Though these insects are not regarded as a part of the avenging furies, prison authorities have been quite willing to let them add their punishment to that inflicted by the court. The Prison Reform Association of Louisiana, however, is taking a more humane and rational view, and its president, Francis H. Shields, after an investigation of the Parish Prison, says "The protection of the prisoners from the terrible infection of mosquitoes is a sanitary as well as a humane necessity, beyond question of discussion" and he advocates a system of screening the sleeping quarters of prisoners.

PROBATION IN NEW ZEALAND

A letter from A. Hume, Inspector of prisons, Wellington, New Zealand, addressed to the secretary of the State Probation Commission at Albany, N. Y., gives some particulars as to the working of the probation law for the year ending December 31, 1907. "Between the first of January and the 31st of March, 1907, 111 persons were placed on probation, as against 101 in the previous year. Of these twenty-three have satisfactorily carried out the terms of their licenses and been discharged, six were rearrested, three absconded, and seventy-nine still remain under the supervision of the probation officers.

"The amount ordered to be paid by the various courts was £471 19s. 1d. of which £258 17s. 4d. has been actually paid. The approximate cost of keeping these offenders had they been sent to prison would have been £3,648 1s. 6d., which sum, added to the amount of costs actually paid, totals a saving of £3,906 18s. 10d.

"Since the act came into force in August, 1886, 1,980 persons have been placed on probation; 1,676 of these have been discharged after satisfactorily carrying out the conditions of their licenses, 110 were rearrested and sentenced to various terms of imprisonment, one committed suicide, four died, two were sent to mental hospitals, two to industrial schools, forty-two absconded, and 143 still remain fulfilling the terms of their licenses.

"A percentage of 84.64 have done well; only a percentage of 2.12 have eluded the vigilance of the probation officers and police and escaped."

CANADIAN PRISON HARVESTERS

Newspapers announce that 30,000 men are needed to harvest the grain crop of the Canadian Northwest which is the largest in many years. To supply the needed labor the Manitoban government has recommended that jails and prisons in the province be opened and that all prisoners serving for minor offences be released on condition that they hire out to help ground the crop. This will give the prisoners an opportunity to earn from \$2 to \$3 a day.

JUVENILE COURTS IN CANADA

The Canadian juvenile court bill passed the senate June 16 and was assented to by the governor-general on July 20. The act contains some of the best provisions of the juvenile court laws adapted to the Canadian code. It provides that juvenile court shall

have exclusive jurisdiction in cases of delinquency, though permitting some exceptional procedure when children over fourteen years of age are charged with indictable offences. The law provides for private trials, forbids the confinement of children in the jails and requires detention homes. There is provision for release on probation and for probation officers, for guardianship, for the fining of parents when necessary, and the religion of the child is to be respected. The act goes into force only when proclamations declaring it in force in any province, city, town, or other portion of a province are issued and published in the *Canada Gazette*.

CALIFORNIA'S NEED

It is said by the *San Jose Mercury* that there are 2,700 prisoners in the California penitentiaries and but 900 cells, that is about three to a cell. Upon this condition the *Mercury* remarks:

"The crowding of our penitentiaries is utterly indefensible. The immense majority of our convicts are under thirty years of age; many of them close to twenty. A very large proportion of them are not as yet habitual and hardened criminals. They are young fellows who have been tempted to crime by drink, by wild passion, or by some sudden and unregulated impulse. By birth and breeding, by antecedents and education, they may be quite capable of better things, and quite ambitious of them. Now, to herd these young, callow and unformed fellows with old and hardened criminals, like cattle in a shed, is an outrage on justice, decency and civilization.

"It is inevitable that the depravation of the worst will be actively contagious, and that it will soon inoculate the better. The young fellow in for his first offense, and that one of impulse and passion; a boy not yet essentially depraved and hardened in crime, is forced to spend more than half his time in a cell with an old and hardened criminal, and what are you to expect? Smallpox is catching; good health is not. The bad man is not reformed, but the boy is utterly debauched and ruined.

"The state of California owes it to justice, decency and humanity, not to say to self-respect and self-preservation, to make its penitentiaries places of punishment indeed, but not breeding places of crime."

"California is in need of a state reformatory for its criminals under thirty years of age and it is to be hoped that the efforts of the progressive and philanthropic leaders in this direction will meet with success."

Civic Improvement

Charles Mulford Robinson, Department Editor

A Playground Referendum—Fire Island Park—Social Legislation in Massachusetts—Park for Wellesley Hills—Caring for Street Trees

A PLAYGROUND REFERENDUM

An interesting test of the referendum has been made in Alameda, California, in regard to the selection of playground sites. A popular vote had previously approved of an issue of bonds for playgrounds; and there being a difference of opinion between the council and the mayor as to the distribution and location of the grounds, the one desiring the purchase of three tracts, to serve respectively the east, west, and center of the city; and the other the selection of one, to serve the west side, the matter was put up to the people to decide. The result of the referendum was—very naturally, it would seem,—a decisive vote in favor of the purchase of the three sites. And no doubt that is best for the city.

FLOWERS AND SMILES

The distribution during the summer of thousands of bunches of flowers to little children is an unusual and pleasant work that is done by the Pittsburgh Playgrounds Association through the playgrounds. The association is dependent for the flowers in large part upon the generosity of its friends, the flowers coming from the private gardens of the city and its suburbs. To remind its friends, the association included this year in its appeal the words: "The flowers you send may fall into the hands of just a

"... dirty little fellow in a dirty part of town,

Where the window panes are sooty and the roofs are tumble-down,

Where the snow falls black in winter, and the wilting sultry heat

Comes like pestilence in summer through the narrow dirty street;

But amid the want and squalor of the crowded sorry place

You can find the little fellow by his happy, smiling face."

FIRE ISLAND PARK

The New York Legislature's passage of the bill to make Fire Island a state park, the governor's signing of the measure and his appointment of the park commission, as required by the law, and then the commission's engagement of a landscape architect to give professional advice, are steps that have quickly followed one another and that seem likely to mean much to New York. The new park, it has been well said, can never be like Riverside Drive nor probably

like Coney Island; but it "may become the greatest fresh air camp in the world." Lying well within the suburban zone of New York city, its wonderful air, beaches, surf and sand will call to all the poor children, overtired workers and convalescents who need their blessings.

A PLAYGROUND PUNISHMENT

It is very rarely that there is wanton destruction of property by children attending a well-conducted playground. Yet once in a while this happens, and the unique punishment bestowed on some lads in St. Louis for such an offense may be valuable as a suggestion. In the playground in Forest park, very early in the season, eight boys, with a superabundance of uncontrolled energy, proceeded to destroy about thirty dollars worth of property. They were discovered and brought before the park commissioner and when they had acknowledged their guilt they received the alternative of going to the Juvenile Court, where, as boys of "good families", they would probably be subjected to fines that their parents would pay; or of accepting such punishment as the commissioner might impose. Boylike, they chose the latter. The commissioner's verdict was that they should work every Saturday afternoon, from one to five, in one of the playgrounds of the slum district, until they had paid in labor a sum equivalent to the fines that would probably have been imposed. "In that playground," said Commissioner Scanlon designating the scene of their labor, "you will see the best behaved boys and girls in any playground in the city. It will be a lesson to you to see how those children, whose fathers are poor, respect the property of the parks and how well behaved they are. It will also be a lesson in the value of the property, and show you what it costs in time and labor to create what you wantonly destroyed in a few minutes of 'fun.'" The oldest of the culprits was fifteen, the youngest was eleven. Their first work was to rake cinders and spread gravel, and they undertook it with some trepidation not knowing the sort of reception they would get. They were guyed a little, and called "chappies"; but the work was performed without active hostilities. The lads learned the lesson of their lives.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION

The Massachusetts Civic League has issued through its secretary, Edward T. Hartman, its report on legislation in that state

for the year 1908. A foreword says: "With the increasing strength due to experience and continuity of effort the governing committee of the league believes that the legislative work of each year should be in some measure more important than that of the preceding year. It is gratifying to the committee to be able to say that no exception need be made for 1908. Several matters which have been for years in the minds of progressive social workers have this year come jointly to a satisfactory termination. This is a vindication of continuity of effort in legislative affairs, such as the league has been maintaining." The most important social legislation obtained was in the passage of three acts dealing with probation and the treatment of juvenile offenders. Of the bill, which became law, to provide public playgrounds in cities and towns where the people vote in favor of such action, the secretary says: "The league did not get into this matter till a very late day because it did not deem it wise to coerce at this time municipalities in this respect, the bill as originally drawn being mandatory. The only mandatory feature now is the vote by the people in case the provision of playgrounds is not already made. This will be useful as it will lead to discussion and public opinion will be developed. There is a good chance for some interesting work in the places where this vote will be taken." He adds: "It is worthy of note in this connection that an enabling act was passed to provide that towns may maintain public gymnasiums, swimming baths and the like, an interesting evidence of the growing appreciation of such things." Efforts to obtain billboard legislation were unavailing, and must wait, the committee believes, upon popular education.

PLANS FOR TOWNS

In all the field of improvement effort, nothing is more significant to-day than the extent to which the smaller cities and towns are following the example set by the large cities in obtaining from outside experts comprehensive plans for improvement. The opportunities for carrying out the plans with comparative completeness, and so securing satisfactory results, are far better with the small towns than with the large. The difference is similar to that of taking a lame child to a specialist instead of a lame man. The chances of relieving the former are much the better, with a treatment less costly and prolonged. In this department there were noted only last month the reports made for Ithaca, N. Y., for Ridgewood, N. J., and for Flint, Mich.; Dubuque's enthusiastic steps to carry out plans that had made for its improvement were mentioned the month before; and now there is to be recorded the making of reports for Cedar Rapids, Iowa, and for Holyoke, Mass. Different men were engaged by the two towns; but it is signif-

icant, and highly encouraging in the promise of results, that in both cases the town government itself engaged them and made the appropriation. In the case of Cedar Rapids, this is made rather more interesting perhaps by the fact that the town had just adopted "the Des Moines plan" of commission government, and that the engagement of the "civic adviser" to make plans for the town's future development was one of the first acts of the new commission, composed of five representative citizens. Holyoke's plans have to do mainly with the provision of a park system, and perhaps one of the results of that is stated in the announcement, which has just been made, that several rich and public spirited citizens have combined in purchasing Mount Holyoke, which they propose to reforest, improve with roads and other facilities to enhance its accessibility and attractiveness to the public, and preserve forever as a park. As this goes to press, it is stated that Montclair, N. J., has also engaged a city beautifier to make a report for it.

PARK FOR WELLESLEY HILLS

Rev. Parris T. Farwell, one of the most efficient civic improvement leaders of New England, has contributed to Mr. Whiting's village improvement department of the Framingham Tribune an account of an enterprise at Wellesley Hills, Mass. He says, in part: "In the heart of the village of Wellesley Hills is an intersection of two highways. Near the apex of the westerly V formed by these roads stands a wooden hotel. In former years this hotel, under the shadow of over-arching elms, was a rather picturesque building. But with the coming of a new trolley line the splendid trees on one side were cut down (there was no improvement society at that time), and the building and surroundings were shorn of their beauty. It became evident that the hotel would soon pass, and, there now being an improvement society, it was foreseen that the corner might be disfigured with cheap buildings or made attractive by a well-placed park. Efforts to buy the plat were ineffectual; then suddenly, about five months ago, it was offered. The president of the society and another man bought the property, the village improvement society called a public meeting at which the situation was explained, and with the belief that the town would be willing to appropriate \$10,000 (half the needed sum) for the plat's purchase—there were several acres besides the hotel lot—the public was invited to subscribe the other \$10,000. The local weekly paper became a valuable medium for informing the public mind. Letters in favor of the movement appeared in each issue for several weeks. The matter was discussed thoroughly and it became so popular that more than the amount at first asked for was subscribed speedily. A May breakfast, pre-

pared by the ladies in aid of the movement, was nearly swamped by the arrival of about two hundred guests beyond the number expected, and over \$200 was cleared. It was also a pleasant fact that subscriptions came from all parts of the town, one-third of the total amount from outside the village of Wellesley Hills, indicating a healthful realization of the fact that whatever benefits a section of the town is good for the whole town."

CARING FOR STREET TREES

The Newark (New Jersey) Shade Tree Commission, which is probably the most progressive and successful of the various official bodies having charge of the street trees of cities, has issued its fourth annual report. It appears in an illustrated pamphlet, of which the frontispiece is the reproduction of a water color in the Reptonian double style showing a convincing view "with" and "without" street trees. Several items in the report invite notice as of general interest. The record of work shows a large increase over a year ago. During the twelve months, twenty-five miles of streets were planted with 3,177 trees. This makes a total, since the inception of the commission in 1904, of seventy-three miles of street and upwards of eight thousand trees. And even this is not the whole record, for in addition to the 3,177 trees planted in 1907, for instance, as per statute, the commission set out "several hundred trees" in response to individual requests. There is also to be noted, as an extremely important part of the commission's work, its care of trees already planted—their trimming, their protection from insects, horses,

and men; and the proper nurturing of their roots. With regard to the horses, the commission urges "every property owner" to protect the trees abutting his tracts of realty by a wire guard or netting of small mesh. "It would cost but little. It would achieve much." The report tells of one case where building contractors cut the roots of two fine elms without a permit, and without the consent or even knowledge of the property owners. The latter have now wisely held up the contractors' bills, insisting on damages before settling the account. There is pictured the small sign that is put on the tree-guards of the trees which were planted on arbor day in front of the schools. It is a shield bearing the words, "This tree is a friend to all children. Be its friend." And the report gives the cost of planting the new trees—i. e., the average assessment for each tree in 1907,—as \$2.49, this covering not only the cost of the tree, but the expense of cutting the flagging or cement, of excavating and subsoiling, and of the guard, collar and stake. Further, it notes that this assessment, once paid, never recurs.

Another item of the report which contains interesting suggestion is a description of a display of evergreens in the small street parks, during the winter. "These evergreens were in part a gift of citizens after the Christmas festivities. Others were left over from the Christmas trade and secured by the thousand at two cents apiece delivered in Newark. They stood from four to twenty-five feet high, and consisted of firs, pines, spruce, balsam, etc. They gave the parks a greatly improved winter aspect, and perspective along the principal paths, giving the effect of avenues of rooted evergreens." Incidentally they were also a protection to the shrub beds against winter severity.

Defectives and Dependents

Alexander Johnson, Department Editor

Where Politics are Bad Policies—Kansas's Fee System—Prospects for the Insane—Maine's Way of Learning—New York's Insane

WHERE POLITICS ARE BAD POLICIES

Two states are struggling with the choice of one of the most important offices in any commonwealth. It would seem that even the merest practical politician would recognize so striking a fact as that the secretary of the Board of State Charities can only be useful as he is absolutely out of politics, and that to merge such an office in the common political swim is very bad politics indeed. In Maryland and in Virginia, the question really is, shall there be a useful secretary of the State Board, selected for competence and from whom

faithful service shall be expected, or shall one more, moderately-paid job, be added to those at the command of the machine?

KANSAS'S WICKED FEE SYSTEM

"No fees if you don't convict" is the rule for magistrates, officers and jury in certain Kansas courts where trials of insanity are being held. In one court where the judge has been very careful and conscientious only one per cent of alleged insanity cases was *acquitted* (*sic*). Lawyers who come into this court say that "previous judges were not so particular." There

seems a depth of infamy belonging to a court and jury who would send a sane person to a madhouse for the sake of a petty fee. A few years ago there was a thriving trade carried on in an Indiana town by a few magistrates, doctors, etc., in trying slightly cranky people as insane, sending them to the State Hospital, from which the superintendent promptly discharged them as not insane. The superintendent called attention to the abuse and it was stopped; but for a time the county's unnecessary fee bill was several hundred dollars a week. It is fair to say that some of the alleged patients rather enjoyed the experience.

PROSPECTS FOR THE INSANE

There are signs in several states which go to show a brighter prospect for the insane. At the Hudson State Hospital, the new acute department for the prompt treatment of incipient cases, to which a threatening case may be admitted on request, without commitment, will soon be ready. Similar departments are soon to be built at Binghamton, Middletown and Utica, as well as a new, separate institution for the same purposes in New York city. In Massachusetts there will soon be an observation hospital, in Boston, supported either by the city or the state.

Henry Phipps' gift to establish a psychiatric clinic in connection with Johns Hopkins Hospital is another sign of hope. There could probably not be found a better man, for the head of such a clinic, than Dr. Henry B. Hurd, superintendent of Johns Hopkins Hospital. The work accomplished in the same or a similar line at Ann Arbor, Mich., and that at Albany, New York, in the department known as Pavilion F. of the general hospital, with a much less adequate equipment in either case than Mr. Phipps' liberality provides, has abundantly justified the movement, which, indeed, is merely bringing the study of insanity in this country a little nearer to its standard in Germany and possibly France. While it is true that the practice of the care of the insane is far behind the science, there is still probably much to learn. If only every case of incipient mental alienation could have prompt and scientific treatment, the number of hospitals for the chronic insane might be speedily diminished. The new clinics will certainly furnish such treatment for a great many cases, and even should no great discoveries be made, this alone will be a great benefit to humanity.

Similar action is being taken in other states, and the time seems ripe for a national association for the care and protection of the insane, such as Mr. Beers suggests in his remarkable book, *A Mind That Found Itself*.

WHEN MAINE WANTS TO KNOW

When the state of Maine wants to know something "for sure," she sends a commission of level-headed men to find out. So a commission whose duty is to tell the Legislature whether the state should have a board of state charities or not, went to the National Conference at Richmond and when they had seen and heard and enquired, decided that the state needed a board of the kind which should be non-partisan, (or rather bi-partisan), unswayed, of high standing and character and with a paid secretary, well trained and with experience, and that its functions should be those of investigation, report and advice, not control.

NEW YORK'S INSANE

The nineteenth annual report of the New York State Commission in Lunacy, covering the fiscal year ending September 30, 1907, has, in its 363 pages, much interesting matter, including many statistical tables. The commission estimates that the increase in prices during the first half of the year over those which prevailed during a similar period in the previous year, has amounted to twenty-two per cent in the staples required by the hospitals. This is one of the reasons why the appropriation for the current year, based on prices of a preceding year, is likely to be so inadequate. The commission makes a strong protest against the reactionary view of the care of the insane, which discourages progressive methods. It denies absolutely the possibility of foretelling whether a case is to be chronic, and stands for giving every case the best opportunity that modern science provides for improvement and cure. It makes a strong protest against a reduction in the appropriations for the maintenance of the insane, and urges an increase in the appropriations for building and improvements.

The percentage of recoveries based on the number of original admissions to the state hospitals was twenty-five and one-half per cent last year, a slight increase over the previous year. This is considered encouraging, especially in view of the unfavorable character of that half of the admissions which come from the alien class, and largely from the lower East Side of New York city. The deportation of 352 insane aliens is reported, and the removal of 170 non-residents to other states. An excellent recommendation is that the State Board of Aliments, consisting of three highly paid physicians, whose time is very inadequately occupied by the work of the board, should be drawn upon for other pressing duties connected with the state hospital system. The commis-

sion would like to assign one of these alienists to inspection duty, supplementing the admirable work that is now being done by the one overworked medical inspector. The report of the medical inspector shows forty-four visits made to the state hospitals during the year, and 4,559 recently admitted patients seen and such attention as was deemed necessary, given them; also sixty-one visits to licensed private institutions, with 278 patients interviewed. One of the chief recommendations of the inspector is the need of better organization of the training schools for nurses, especially the

appointment of a nursing officer of superior character and efficiency to have the supervision and management of the training of the nurses. There is much interesting scientific material in the report of the director of the Pathological Institute, which correlates the scientific work of the state hospitals, and has been extremely successful in stimulating and improving the medical service.

The report recommends the renewal of the lease of the Ward's Island buildings, and the establishment of a new state hospital in the south-eastern part of the state.

Communications

AN EVIL ALLIANCE

TO THE EDITOR:

A recent issue of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS contained editorial approval of a suggestion by *Collier's Weekly* that a committee be formed, on which philanthropic interests should be represented and also some of the leading brewers and their counsel, to consider the saloon evil. May I offer one or two comments?

(1) The brewers, who now point a condemning finger at the "wicked saloon" are the very men, as a class, who practically own or control the lawless places they criticize. It is, of course, generally known that the brewers pay a large proportion of saloon license fees, rent the saloon premises or go surety on the leases, supply the bar fixtures, holding a mortgage on the same, and practically control the situation. They are quite competent to do their own house cleaning, but profits lie along the line of violation of law, both for the brewer, whose brand is being pushed and whose fixtures are being paid for at a high price, and also for the saloon keeper, who must make enough to satisfy the brewer and keep his own head above water.

(2) The rich brewers and distillers are in their way as thoroughly lawless as the dive keepers. It is the brewer and the distiller who invade prohibition states and force their wares into "dry" territory. They do it by backing joints and they do it by sheltering themselves behind interstate commerce laws and using express companies for selling agents.

When Kansas City, Kansas, was cleaned up two years ago, and Mr. Trickett, the assistant attorney general, had secured injunctions against a number of saloon keepers and the injunctions were violated and the saloon keepers were fined and put in jail, it was the outside brewers who paid the fines, paid the salaries of the men in jail and sent in fresh bar keepers to defeat the enforcement of the law. Six bar tenders were taken one after another from one saloon.

The liquor business is anarchistic from top to bottom. The attitude of the whole trade was well expressed by a saloon keeper in my office one day, when speaking of Sunday sales, he said, "If I can pay a 'cop' \$5 and make \$250, why wouldn't I?"

(3) For reformers to associate themselves in conferences and committees with unscrupulous opponents is to invite confusion. It is a technical blunder into which reformers have not infrequently been lead but which has never resulted in any but one way, so far as my experience and observation go. Misinformation is sent out under respectable authority. The disinterested activities of the reformers are more than matched by the interested activities of their opponents and the whole cause is generally prejudiced.

(4) It is misleading to speak of the present movement as an "anti-saloon" movement. It is an "anti-alcoholic" movement. The business community is beginning to know what the prohibitionists have been trying to make them understand for more than twenty-five years, viz., that the use of alcoholic drinks is economically intolerable. There are in this country half a million inebriates and as many more "occasional drunkards" (estimate by editor of *Journal of Inebriety*). That is a number sufficient to people two cities the size of Boston. Consider, please, that not one in the entire number ever expected to succumb. Every one of them counted himself able to use alcohol "in moderation." The evils of alcohol flow from the inherent nature of the drug, not from the character of the place in which it is consumed. It is no respecter of persons. It operates in the rich and educated just as it does in the ignorant and poor. Amongst the "bums of the gutter" to be found in the Bowery missions is a fair proportion of college graduates. It was not the low dive but the high class bar that did the business for them. If anything like a saloon existed in all Palestine I know of no mention of it, but the prophets nevertheless pronounced woes upon Israel for its drunkenness.

By clamoring against the low dive the liquor trade now hopes to deceive the public into a belief that the evil to be eradicated is "the dive" and to divert attention from the real issue which is the entire trade in intoxicants.

(5) The aim of the brewer and the distiller is to extend his business and to increase the sales of intoxicants. The aim of the reformer is to diminish or wholly suppress such sales. "How can two walk together except they be agreed?"

Such a combination committee as the one now suggested would be, in my judgment, a misfortune.

The liquor men know their business from

A to Z. They need no help from outside in understanding it or its results. We can be assured of this that no matter what specious plan may be devised to "regulate" the saloon and "lessen its evil" there will never be any compliance on the part of the liquor men with any merely restrictive regulations which to any extent interfere with their getting the people's money and as much of it as they possibly can. The people will take care of their case in due time. In the meanwhile I am sure that the sound policy is to keep aloof from any alliance of the kind proposed.

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The Trend of Things

The Cleveland Public Library has just issued a very attractive pamphlet on the work that it is doing with the children of the city and the means used to reach them. At present, in connection with the branch libraries there are seven children's rooms in charge of assistant librarians. There are eight sub-branches and three settlement libraries for children. Five of the high schools and nine of the elementary schools have children's libraries and there are 123 class room libraries. Perhaps one of the most interesting features of the work, however, is the home library idea. Last year



volumes circulated in 1907. More requests have been presented by principals for libraries in the schools than the library has been able to meet. In fact, the reader judges in looking over the report and the pictures that the children's branches are pretty well filled with readers all the year round.

...

The National Cash Register Co. of Dayton, Ohio, has found room for two blind girls in its shops and according to the *Daily News* of that city the experiment is proving successful. The *News* rightly believes that there are many factory positions where the blind could do the work as well as the seeing if the manufacturers would co-operate with the various associations for the blind.

"Several weeks ago," says the *News*, "E. G. Pease, one of the directors of the Dayton Association for the Blind, called on the N. C. R. company, to see if it were possible to find employment for some of the blind girls at the factory. The matter was discussed, after which a trip through the girls' department was made, and Mr. Pease picked out a dozen or more things that he was sure the blind girls could do. It was decided to make a trial, and on Monday morning, July 6,

11,075 volumes were distributed in this manner. There are thirty-two home libraries, each with its own visitor. These traveling libraries consist of forty or fifty attractive books which are sent to the families in localities at some distance from any of the main branches. On an appointed afternoon each week a visitor goes to the home and meets ten or twelve children of the neighborhood who have formed themselves into a group, and she reads or tells a story, plays a game and gives each child one or two books to take home. In the nine school libraries the report says that 76,271

Lida Supe and Anna McClure, two totally blind girls, started in to work, one in the bindery department and one in the indicator department, and they are doing finely. Another girl, Elizabeth Johnson, who has enough sight to get around, takes the girls to and from their work to the cars, and the N. C. R. company has now given her work at the factory."

* * *

The *Weekly Scotsman* of recent date gives an English viewpoint of the unemployed situation in Glasgow. The article was written by a member of the Glasgow Workers' Unemployed Committee and the author believes that present troubles in Glasgow have been caused by the rapid developments of labor saving machinery in the past few years.

"Broadly speaking, the present unemployed troubles have been caused by the rapid developments which have taken place in the application of labour-saving machin-

ery to industry during the past few years. As a consequence of this, many skilled industries have either been completely wiped out, or else so modified as to no longer require the services of skilled workmen.

"In other industries women and girls have displaced men so seriously as in some places to actually reverse the economic position of the sexes. For instance, in Dundee there are industries in which the recognized average wages paid to men is only 11s. 9d. a week, while it is not unusual to find women earning double this sum. The same thing applies to Paisley, and in a greater or less degree to certain industries in almost every industrial centre.

"Even in industries where skilled workmen are still required, large numbers of them have been displaced by machinery, and compelled to swell the ranks of the unemployed, or else join the already overstocked and underpaid army of unskilled labourers."

Jottings

Assistant Director Chicago School.—Miss Edith Abbott has accepted the position of assistant director in the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. Since taking her doctor's degree in economics three years ago at the University of Chicago, Miss Abbott has spent one year with the Carnegie Institute in the economics research department, one year with the London School of Economics as A. C. A. fellow and one year at Wellesley College in the department of economics. She has contributed frequently to the *Journal of Economics* and the *Journal of Sociology*. Miss Abbott will be identified with the research department of the School of Civics and Philanthropy.

Field Day at Scranton.—One thousand children, five hundred boys and five hundred girls will participate in a field day which will be held at Athletic Park, Scranton, Pa., on August 28. One hundred boys and one hundred girls from each of the five playgrounds, West Side, North End, South Side, Green Ridge and Central City, will compete for the special prizes to be offered to the playground whose devotees play the best, act the best and look the best after the playing and acting.

A Huckster's Union, Cleveland.—With a very novel purpose the hucksters of Cleveland have just organized. It is not for more rights in the street, nor for segregation, nor for any such public matters, but the basis of their organization is to protect the public and themselves against deception.

Playground for Hebrew Sheltering Arms.—To build a concrete playground with a shelter on the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society grounds at 150th street, New York, Adolph Lewisohn has given \$5,000. He has also recently given \$50,000 and a cottage that is to cost \$20,000 for the Cottage Settlement at Pleasantville, work on which is soon to be begun.

Jewish Charities of Philadelphia Read Through Pictures.—To attract the attention of its contributors as well as to make them thoroughly acquainted with the manner in which their funds are being disbursed, the Philadelphia Federation of Jewish Charities has gone into the show business.

At the annual meeting a series of moving pictures representative of the activities of all the constituent bodies was presented and it made a graphic plea for the needs of such an institution. The pictures were the work of a member of the federation.

Young Folks' League for the Home Treatment of Tuberculosis.—To raise funds for the free distribution of milk and eggs to tuberculosis patients a Young Folks' League for the Home Treatment of Tuberculosis has been organized in New York. The league which intends to cover the entire city, will distribute daily three quarts of milk and six eggs to each tuberculosis patient who is properly recommended by the hospital visiting nurses. Dr. James A. Miller; Dr. S. S. Goldwater of Mt. Sinai Hospital and Rabbi Schulman addressed the first meeting.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

THE COMING PLAY CONGRESS

When more than 1,000 of the leading educators, social workers, physicians and representatives of government are willing to come from all parts of the country simply to lend their support to the doctrine that the people must have a chance to play, it is an indication of the important place "play" has won for itself in the school curricula, the health protective programs and the measures for reducing juvenile crime. This gathering which will open in New York at the Museum of Natural History on September 8 is the second play congress of the Playground Association of America. The purpose of the meeting is simply to induce municipalities and private individuals to provide adequate playing opportunities in the belief that such opportunities are among the most potent factors for raising the health, mentality, and morals of the community. The first Play Congress which was held in Chicago a year ago proved an effective stimulus to the cities of the West. The model playground operated at Jamestown reached the South with its example of child happiness. The New York conference will it is believed bring home to the East, the vast importance of setting aside land for playgrounds before ground rates become so high that the people's breathing places cost a million dollars an acre, which was New York's unfortunate penalty for waiting too long. If New York had waited until to-day to set aside Central Park, this great playing place would cost more than \$500,000,000.

The second congress will, it is expected, far surpass the previous one. For whereas playgrounds were more or less a rarity a year ago, to-day more than 218 cities either have playgrounds or are taking steps to establish them. In these places, play interest is high and scores of these cities have accepted the invitation of Mayor George B. McClellan, honorary president of the congress, to send official delegates. Many other municipalities which are not yet on the playground list will also be represented either by their mayors or officers of health, education or park departments. Governor Hughes, of New York, will speak for the state government. Dr. Luther Halsey Gulick, president of the association and Dr. Woods Hutchinson will speak for the medical and physical side of play. Dr. William H. Maxwell will discuss play and education. The meetings aside from the general sessions will consist largely of special conferences. Mayor McClellan will preside over one for city officials to which every municipality in the United States has been urged to send delegates. There will also be a special conference on the establishment of country playgrounds and athletic associations as a means of deterring the migration of farm boys to the cities. In this conference Dr. Myron T. Scudder and Professor L. H. Bailey, of Cornell University, who was asked to serve on President Roosevelt's Agricultural Commission, will have a prominent part.

The relationship of play to juvenile delinquency will be discussed in many papers by Allen Burns, Mrs. Harriet Heller, Joseph Lee and others and Owen

R. Lovejoy will treat the playground movement as a necessary supplement to the child labor propaganda.

Professor C. W. Hetherington will discuss university extension in physical training and also will report on a course of study for preparing teachers for playground supervision. Professor Royal Melendy will deal with playgrounds in rural schools. C. B. J. Snyder, the New York public school architect, will talk of roof playgrounds which are the result of the antithesis of country property conditions. Howard Bradstreet, E. B. De Groot, David I. Kelly, Dr. Seth T. Stewart, Miss Sadie American, Dr. E. H. Arnold and a score of other speakers will present papers dealing with every phase of the work of playgrounds from matters of equipment and organization to athletics for girls, play festivals and institutional playgrounds. Joseph Lee will present a report on the growth of playground legislation and the various standing committees and chairman will report on the success of the play movement.

On several days there will be exhibitions by school children of New York and Newark and on the final day, September 12, there will be a harvest festival of all nations introducing the folk dances of many people.

POLITICAL EXPLOITATION OF STATE INSTITUTIONS

Illinois has repudiated the attempt to make its state institutions a shuttlecock between the battledores of political factions or parties. The fierce factional fight within the Republican Party has turned upon the effort to defeat the renomination of Governor Deneen by discrediting the present administration of the state charities and corrections. The opposing faction in the Legislature secured the appointment of a committee to investigate the institutions, the majority of which were known to be committed against the governor and the State Board of Charities. The report of this committee to the Legislature, although too voluminous to be read by the voters, too indiscriminate to be of real value, and too bitterly

biased to command confidence, was used as ammunition for the most personal campaign speeches and editorials. The capacity and character not only of the governor but also of the most eminent members of the State Board of Charities were most wantonly traduced. One occasion for this was the reappointment of Miss Julia C. Lathrop and Dr. Emil G. Hirsch by Governor Deneen after his predecessor, who contested the nomination for the governorship, had forced their resignation from the board. In rejoinder the governor charged that the conditions justifying criticism have been inherited from the administration of his predecessor and were due to the political exploitation of the institutions. The State Board of Charities in a dignified statement of facts, supplemented by a telling speech by its chairman, Dr. Frank Billings, made it obvious that any failure to correct unsatisfactory conditions and to carry out their own far-reaching plans for improvement in equipment, service and management, was due to the denial of the necessary funds by the Legislature. To parry the force of those facts, the reliance of the opposition was placed principally upon a sentimental appeal to passion through the mother of a feeble-minded child who had been injured by falling against a radiator.

The people's repudiation of this nefarious attempt to drag their state institutions through the mire of a mud-slinging campaign was registered by their first vote under the new direct primary law, August 8, in the renomination of Governor Deneen, the retirement from the Legislature of the chairman of the so-called investigating committee, and the shattering of the factional "machine," which desperately fought a losing fight to regain the power and prestige that it had so long swayed by combining federal patronage and corrupt practices in state politics.

The re-election of the present state administration, however, is likely to depend, more than anything else, upon the explicitness of its pledge and the certainty of its policy to divorce public interests and institutions far more completely from partisan manipulation and political con-

siderations than any state administration has ever dared. Public sentiment in Illinois is unmistakably declaring its demand that this should be done. And they who most courageously and completely rely upon the people's support in so doing are most likely to have the opportunity given them to administer the public interests of the second greatest state among American commonwealths.

No stronger plea can now be made for the continuance of the present state administration than that the public institutions demand the retention of the most capable State Board of Charities Illinois has ever had, and that the opportunity shall thus be afforded to place the public institutions of Illinois in the front rank of efficiency, where some of them once were and where they all belong.

FORECAST OF A HARD WINTER

A statement issued by the New York Charity Organization Society presents a rather gloomy view of the unusual conditions of distress that still exist in Manhattan and the Bronx. Another winter of exceptional destitution and unemployment may be expected. As the summer advances the percentage of increased work falling on the district offices of the society has not decreased. For instance, although in many respects the times seem to be improving, and in many quarters there are reports of resumption of work, the number of new applicants in the district offices for help from the society was, in July, 150 per cent greater than the number of new applicants for help as in July, 1907.

Then, again, the number of families which it is necessary to help again after a period of self-support, is a barometer of prevailing conditions. In July of this year over twice as many families as in the previous July were forced to apply a second time for charitable help from the society. While that number is somewhat smaller than the figures for June, 1908, which had almost three times as many "cases reopened" as in the previous June, the July figures are almost three times as large as in the case of families reapplying

after a period of self support as in May. Indeed, in May, 1908, conditions looked much more favorable than at present.

The work of the district offices of the society has continued to be very heavy, as a natural consequence. In July the calls by persons or families applying for aid was nearly 3,000, an increase of nearly 100 per cent over the previous July. In spite of its being a vacation period, when the working force of the district offices can be ordinarily somewhat reduced, over 4,000 visits were made in July by the society's agents and assistant agents in behalf of those who need help.

A curious evidence of the industrial situation is found in picnic parks around New York. The dance halls in the Bronx, usually flourishing at this season of the year, are all closed because of the lack of patrons and the proprietors say that they will reopen in the winter. The same is true in the Jersey suburbs, but with the added limitation that they will reopen in New Jersey as soon as Palisade Park closes in September. Coney Island is complaining, too, and most of the pavilions and shows are most eager for custom and a nickle is welcomed as though it were a dollar. Waiters rush to serve even the hated "basket parties" and the general tone of the place on week days is far below its average in attendance, at least.

WINTER'S OUTLOOK IN BALTIMORE

The Baltimore Federated Charities reports from the southeastern district agent, whose applicants are for the most part Poles engaged during the summer at fruit packing and canning establishments both in the city and country, and in the winter in the oyster industry, that the people are coming back from their summer's work with not more than \$10 or \$15 each. Formerly they returned with enough to pay up their back debts and to carry them through the winter. One local packing house that usually has at this time of year a payroll of from \$3,000 to \$4,000, is now paying from \$1,000 to \$1,200. The business men say

that the situation is the worst that they have known for twenty-six years.

Another Baltimore district which is largely occupied by employes of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad reports very hard times due to the fact that most of the railroad hands who have been retained are still working very irregularly. Most of the men are only working nine days in the month. It is said that the cut in wages and in time affects 2,500 families. The agent in this district learns that in one Catholic parish 1,200 men and 600 women are receiving aid from the St. Vincent de Paul Society.

From another district occupied largely by mill hands and by skilled laborers comes the statement that none of the mills are working more than half time, and that work has been very slack during the summer for carpenters and painters, so that they will begin the winter without any funds and will undoubtedly in many cases be forced into dependence during the coming months.

All the agents say that they are now having many applications from respectable families who have always hitherto been self supporting; that in many cases money that has been laid by in the past to provide for a rainy day is now exhausted and that in a number of these families there will be no alternative except to apply for charitable aid.

"BATH LINES"

RIVALING BREAD LINES

In the July 25 issue of this magazine Miss Emily G. Balch contributed a new idea for public baths. Her inquiry was, why a shower bath with a hose attached to a hydrant could not be used in the streets of our cities to cool the children—in other words why the bath-line might not rival the bread-line? Two newspaper clippings that have come to this office since the appearance of Miss Balch's letter go to show that her suggestion is already being followed out in Newark and Baltimore.

The Sunday *Call* of Newark, N. J., said recently that they are giving free shower baths to the boys on the Second City Playground at Prince street

and Waverly avenue, in a novel and primitive manner.

The youngsters are corralled in a corner and one of the playground attendants turns the hose on them, while two assistants in near-bathing suits soap the exposed parts of the bodies of those receiving the shower bath. It is great fun for the youngsters, and it is as near as most of them can come to get a cooling, if not cleansing, bath.

The Baltimore *Sun* says that there need be no such element in the population in Baltimore as the "great unwashed" if plans under consideration by the Free Public Bath Commission are put into execution. It is proposed in that city to establish a system of shower baths in tents in sections of the city not provided with bath houses or outdoor baths and swimming pools.

Rev. Thomas M. Beadenkoff, general superintendent of baths says in the *Sun* that "the idea was suggested to him in a magazine devoted to charity and dealing with the experiment New York city has been making with hose attachments for giving baths in various sections of the city inhabited by poor people." He does not believe that the hose idea would work in New York or elsewhere for that matter and consequently he has fallen back on the plan of tents and shower baths which has been approved by the water engineer and several members of the Bath Commission.

"WHAT GOOD

WILL IT DO?"

The press, generally speaking, takes hold of the hundred and one plans for the promotion of the common welfare in such a hearty and sensible fashion that it is not our desire to make unwarranted criticism. But the benighted Binghamton, N. Y., *Republican's* comment on the "show business" of the State Charities Aid Association is too good (or bad) to pass:

The State Charities Aid Society will go into the show business and with moving pictures at thirty-six county fairs illustrate the ravages of consumption. What good will it do? A person attacked by consumption naturally wants to find a cure more than

he wants to see a show. If there is any method of treatment that cures the afflicted want to know it, and ascertain what it is.

Is there any one else who has not heard "Prevention is better than cure"? And after the *Republican* man leaves the "show" he may have learned something about "the cure" that he did not know before. Let us hope so.

PLAYGROUNDS IN YONKERS

The general probation committee of Yonkers, N. Y., composed of representatives from eight or nine of the local social service agencies, with the judge of the City Court as chairman, has recently taken up the subject of playgrounds, with the object of recommending for purchase by the city one or two centers for play. A sub-committee of five members was appointed to select and suggest sites for these playgrounds and at the last meeting of the general committee, at which the mayor was an invited guest, a report from this sub-committee was read by its chairman, Robbins Gilman.

The salient features of this report, while they apply more strictly to conditions as they exist in Yonkers, still have in a sense a broad application, and are here given:

In our selection of playground sites, we have been guided throughout by four conclusions, which we consider as absolutely necessary in making an intelligent selection of playgrounds in Yonkers:

(1) The broad, general and underlying proposition that some more adequate and wholesome outlet for the natural instinct for play in children should be provided than is afforded by the hot, unsanitary and dangerous streets of our city, and that this outlet should take the form of what is commonly known as a playground.

(2) That in selecting a playground, the site should be located where child population is dense and population in general is congested. A playground is useless if located in any other place than where child-life is teeming. The majority of children for whom a playground is needed, must necessarily keep within a certain radius of their homes; it is impossible for them to go any great distance away from home.

(3) That, on account of the present entirely inadequate park space in Yonkers (it has been estimated at seven and one-half acres) playgrounds should serve the double purpose of opening up a breathing space in

our congested districts, where when play ceases for the day, room could be had for weary and hard working adults to sit and rest.

While there seems little present likelihood of any immediate action by the city officials in acquiring the plots suggested by the committee, the movement thus inaugurated if properly guided and managed, should in time accomplish much in the way of arousing and crystalizing public opinion and sentiment for this greatly needed civic improvement.

As a further evidence of an awakening, it may be stated that Mayor Warren recently appointed a committee of twelve well known citizens all very actively interested in social work, to officially represent him and the city at the coming Congress of the Playground Association of America.

The Race Riot in Lincoln's City

Graham Taylor

There is a bitter irony in the fact that the largest force of state troops ever assembled in Illinois were summoned by the governor of Lincoln's state to protect the Negroes whom Lincoln emancipated from citizens of Lincoln's city. It is the more bitterly ironical because the Negro population of Springfield gathered and grew up around the refugees from the South who during the Civil War fled to the home of Abraham Lincoln for refuge. It is a sorry comment upon American civilization that no better use has been made of our resources of law, education and religion than to have allowed that population to become in large part a depraved that the new race of white barbarians, who have also sprung from the same consecrated soil, trust no means of protecting themselves from them except the blood and fire of extermination.

The isolation to which the increasing race antipathy consigns the Negro populations in the cities of the North, East and West, as well as in the South, may confidently be reckoned upon to produce everywhere all the elements for just such a crucifixion of its justice, humanity and religion, as the nation has suffered in

Springfield. Not only is this most helpless part of our population largely left to its own feeble resources for self help, but the vicious and criminal conditions of the districts in which both the better and the worse Negroes can only find shelter are forced upon all alike and their children too, indiscriminately.

It is generally conceded that the depravity, the growth and the perpetuation of the Negro slums in Springfield are due to corrupt local politics with its police graft and lax enforcement of law. Moreover, it is not difficult to trace the local distrust of the law or contempt for its authority, shown not more in the rioting than in packing jury lists to defeat the prosecution of proven criminals, to the fact that a disgracefully large proportion of the law makers in the Illinois Legislature have been long notorious for their own lack of respect for law and of any sense of seriousness in legislating for the whole people.

All the reparation that can be made may confidently be expected from the prompt, vigorous, yet considerably conservative way in which Governor Deneen is using all the military and legal resources of the state to restore order and bring to swift and certain punishment, those who have disgraced it; and from the overwhelming public sentiment which has already rallied sufficiently to support the prosecutor and sheriff of Sangamon county and the police of Springfield in enforcing the law without further military aid. But the blood of the innocent cries from the ground less for vengeance than for the justice which can prevent the recurrence of such barbarities threatened everywhere, only by such co-operation of law, education and religion, as will at least civilize our barbarians, both white and black.

Studying Criminals in a Laboratory

Samuel J. Barrows

Among recent government documents is a report of a hearing on the bill (H. R. 16733), to establish "a laboratory for the study of the criminal, pauper and defective classes." Lest anyone get an

exaggerated idea of the patience of members of Congress and innocently imagine that a subcommittee of the judiciary committee of the House of Representatives actually listened to the 328 pages of matter presented at this hearing, we must exonerate the committee from the charge of a lavish expenditure of public time and explain that Arthur Macdonald, who made the statement, had leave to have it printed.

Whatever members of Congress may think of Mr. Macdonald's views, they must certainly give him credit for untiring industry and persistency. For several years he has asked Congress to establish such a laboratory. Doubtless one reason for the failure to establish it is not only the expense, but the feeling that the federal government, as is intimated in this hearing, would be infringing on the rights of the states in conducting such a bureau and subjecting the inmates of such institutions to compulsory examination. Our charitable and penal systems are divided by state lines. Local authorities are often jealous of federal interference, and how would the guardians of poor houses defend themselves against local indignation if it were known that gentlemen from Washington came around with a formidable collection of curious instruments and subjected them to a series of tests which they could not apply to the multi-millionaires? Prisoners have less protection in this respect and might be said to be fairly victims of the calipers and the rule if not of the chronoscope, the plethysmograph, the algometer and other threatening instruments. Even now it is difficult to get the authorities to see the wisdom of having sufficient physical examination of convicted persons to determine their identity when arrested a second time. If such a bureau were confined wholly to government paupers, criminals and defectives, it would have a very narrow scope as compared with what it would have in a single state of the Union like New York. The federal government has been much behind many of the states in enacting judicial and penological reforms, and there are certainly other

things much more important to secure than this bureau. We do not underrate in any way the importance of studying the abnormal classes after they are segregated, but the most important thing to do in dealing with juvenile offenders, the main subject of Mr. Macdonald's "statement," is to save the large majority who are normal but who have been treated by legal machinery as if they were abnormal.

The bill to establish this laboratory belongs itself to the "defective classes" of proposed legislation. It provides for an independent bureau with a director to be appointed by the president. It would be independent of all other departments, constituting in fact a department by itself. The director would not be under the control of any cabinet officer and might pursue his investigations at his own sweet will and spend a good deal of government money in industrious but fruitless curiosity. What might not happen for instance if such an unbalanced man as Lombroso were placed at the head of such a bureau with the power to publish under the name of science his wild vagaries without check or revision? We can infer what might happen from what did happen. A brave young officer in our navy, Captain Hobson, was the hero of one of the most dramatic and thrilling episodes of the Spanish war. He was justly the subject of admiration. A foolish American paper in a deplorable effort to be humorous calculated that in the course of a trip throughout the country Captain Hobson had received 10,000 kisses. Thereupon, Lombroso, taking it all seriously as established fact, publishes a study of osculation or the kissing mania in the United States, interpreting it, we suppose, through his favorite doctrine of atavism. Imagine the indignation of Congressman Hobson if some disciple of Lombroso with as little discrimination as his master should, as director of the proposed bureau, publish as a government document this contribution to criminology from the Italian! What would his fair constituents in Alabama think of Lombroso's reflections upon the habits of American women, or what would they

say of the publication by the government as an official document of a psychological study of American women based upon an analysis of private and confidential letters brought out by an advertisement in an American newspaper?

Presidents are not infallible and we dread to think of the consequences which might follow if the executive were to appoint to this bureau some pseudo criminologist, who would wreak his fearful and unrestrained curiosity upon the government printing office and add to the deficit of the post office department by circulating absurdities even worse than those of Lombroso.

The fact is that criminal anthropology is not entitled as yet to be called a science; it is not more than a science in embryo. Its representatives do not agree among themselves as to facts or conclusions. It is a little premature to establish an independent bureau of the government based upon its pretensions. Though Italy is the land of Lombroso and the so-called Italian school, the Italian government has not thought it worth while to establish such a bureau, nor has France nor Germany. Yet any one of these countries, because of their centralized control of all penal establishments, could do it much easier than the United States. There is no distinctive school of American criminologists, and it is just as premature now to establish a government bureau in this field as it would have been to establish a government bureau of phrenology when Gall and Spurzheim began.

The fact is that everything desirable proposed in this bill can be secured in a better and more economical way. As for statistics we have not yet learned how many criminals there are in the United States, but under the new provision in the census law the United States has made a beginning in the collection of judicial statistics. The bibliography of the subject can be provided through the bibliographical department of the Congressional Library. As for data for criminal identification, the Department of Justice has already made provision for its collection and so has the state of New York. Lastly, as to pathological

data, the formation of the Association of Prison Physicians in the United States furnishes a means of securing laboratory investigation in the prisons of all the states and for the comparison of all this material by a body of investigators. Whenever important results are secured there will be no difficulty in getting them published by the American Prison Association or by the government, which is always generous in publishing scientific or sociological information.

The Next Street But One¹

Reviewed by Caroline D. Penniman

An observer, a thinker, and a narrator, might be the summing up of the literary personality of Miss M. Loane, whose book, *The Next Street But One*, has been placed this year before the reading world. From her personal experiences as a district nurse in both town and country, she draws certain conclusions with which one may not agree unqualifiedly, but whose sincerity cannot be doubted.

Criticism might point to Miss Loane's segregation of "the poor" in a class apart, and to the confusion of topics consequent upon very profuse illustrations. She tells us, however, that the poor have class barriers of their own, firmly erected and closely guarded, and warns us against dealing with them from a detached point of view, so that her own apparent detachment would seem unconscious.

Lack of culture among the poor other than in its most literal sense is very noticeable. Politeness and chivalry exist largely, but the cultivation that among other things over educates the very young, deplores physical deformity, adheres to the truth because of a keen and highly developed sensibility of style, and causes an innate sense of correct grammar in verbal and written expression, is very rarely found.

A certain elementary knowledge of science is spreading, and interest in the affairs of the outside world is much greater among the poor than is generally

believed. The art of cooking has reached a far higher degree of perfection than is commonly known, and while the languages do not flourish, instrumental music is very general. Art in itself is not patronized, yet in their manner of dress the poor are constantly developing greater refinement. Their pleasures, thanks often to unwise philanthropists, are many and varied.

These same philanthropists have failed to reduce abject poverty because hitherto they have despised the home life of the poor, and have tried to deal with every phase of the question from the outside. Homes for the aged, orphan asylums, free meals for school children, numerous hospitals for the sick, day nurseries, sterilized milk for babies given and delivered free of cost, baths in the public schools, and "happy evenings" that take young boys and girls every night from home—these are a few of the disintegrating influences at work. Notwithstanding this, home life is developing, and relatives are feeling the necessity for closer unity. "The most ordinary home is preferable to the best institution, as the natural ailment of babies is to patent foods." It is not by the wisdom of the charitable that the stability of the working class homes is preserved, but by the incorruptible independence of the majority of the poor.

The higher class of society fails to realize the love of the poor for their children, but often there is a more hopeless negligence shown in the raising of the children of the rich than is ever found among the poor. The ideals and standards of the latter are greatly varied and only by strengthening them can their lives be developed best.

Standards of morality vary in different districts, and religious and moral tolerance are almost universal. The poor are generous and charitable toward each other, but in their dealings with members of a higher social order their tendency to deceive manifests itself. Social workers should not demand their confidence in exchange for material assistance, for placing so palpable a price upon confidence will never win it. Ethically the views of the poor are only dif-

¹The Next Street But One, by M. Loane. New York, 1907. Pp. 309. Price \$2. This book can be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

ferent from, not better nor worse than those of the upper class. An example of this can be seen in the courtships which, owing to peculiar family standards, are trivial in comparison with the tried love of man and wife. Engagements are often lightly regarded, and the tendency of mothers to spoil their sons frequently postpones marriage to the lasting hurt of both men and women.

The lives of the poor in both town and country are in one phase identical—overcrowding is always found. Wages are smaller in the country, but are offset by many advantages: the boys go to work later in life and childhood is preserved longer. House rent, fire-wood, and country food stuffs are cheap and can be procured by nearly all of the poor. Length of working hours and lack of holidays in the country are a disadvantage. It is a fallacy to believe physical conditions there are better than in the towns. People are careless of their health and neglect sanitary measures considered absolutely necessary in the city.

Regarding the things that make for better communities, the poor have little social conscience, and prefer to "mind their own business" in cases where it is their duty to interfere. This cowardice is not confined to them but spreads through every branch of society. The duty of overlooking and inspecting is more neglected than any other. Men dislike it, and it devolves upon the women, who are slow to realize their powers and abilities.

The interdependence of the poor should not be discouraged by promiscuous and constant giving. This is very wrong, and yet they are mistaken who think lending is preferable to giving. "Lending is often a method of giving without a sense of responsibility and receiving without a sense of responsibility."

Compulsory education has done much toward bringing about greater interdependence, but there are some bad results from even so good a law. If we do not wish to accept the baldest communism "children must be allowed to spend some part of the day with their parents and if their homes are too small to permit of their doing this, it is the homes that we must improve, and not the schools."

Home industries are pernicious and make for the deterioration of the family groups where conditions are normal. The house and children are neglected, the man grows lazy, and the woman irritable if not worse. Laundry work and tailoring are both hard and unremunerative employments, and play a large part in the spread of tuberculosis. Why build sanatoriums for the care of the tubercular, when these occupations are allowed and dying consumptives send out from their homes germ-laden articles of apparel?

Following the chapter on home industries are ten stories of Miss Loane's personal experiences in the home lives of the poor. In these her art as a narrator is most clearly shown, and as illustrations of what goes before are well chosen and faithfully portrayed.

Aunt Hannah's Birthday Party

Jessie C. Sleet

Alexander had reached his eighth birthday; Aunt Hannah her eightieth. He was deformed and hobbled around on crutches; she was blind and used a cane. They were not related but they had lived in the same dirty little lane opposite each other for years.

Alexander made but few friends. His ugly little face and his misshapen body

*This story was awarded first prize in the recent story contest held by this magazine.

were not pleasing to the eye, and then he cried altogether too much and demanded too much attention, so thought the neighbors, and his mother agreed with them, but strange to say for some unexplained reason Aunt Hannah felt from the first that the little unfortunate had a direct claim on her love and sympathy. She readily consented to care for him while his mother went out to work.

Soon their acquaintance ripened into friendship and love. Just as he reached his eighth birthday his mother died. He was all alone. Aunt Hannah thought her duty was clear; she adopted him.

When I made my first visit it was to show her that she had made a mistake and to induce her to enter a home and put Alexander in an institution. The door was slightly ajar. I paused and peeped within. He was curled up on the floor at her feet with his head resting on her knee, while she, with her arm thrown tenderly about him, was singing in a low and cooing voice

"Swing low sweet chariot coming for
to carry me home."

Love and devotion were plainly written on their faces. Silently I watched them for several minutes and studied the problem afresh. Through the kindness of a former employer she received a monthly allowance of twelve dollars and in addition to this the blind pension of fifty dollars a year. Not sufficient for all of their needs, but by practicing careful economy they managed to get along. Aunt Hannah's days on earth could not be many—why not wait until the end or if not until the end, why not let things remain as they were for a while longer? I decided to do the latter.

Every month I visited the little home. A year stole quietly by. He was nine and she was eighty-one. I was reminded of this fact when the postman handed me a very soiled envelope. I opened it and read:

"This is an invocation
To a birth-day partie
to-nite for Ant Hanna
"by
"Alexander"

When I turned into the lane, Alexander met me. He was much excited and hurriedly explained: "It's a real s'prise party and all my own, all but the invitation—that Jim Jones wrote. You see", he said, "I made thirty cents mindin' babies and goin' errands and I spended it all. Go right in and wait till

I get Aunt Hannah, she's 'cross the street."

I entered and found the room decorated with many brightly colored papers. The table was spread for three. In the center was a large piece of molasses cake and some dishes mysteriously covered. I was curious to know their contents and might have been tempted beyond control had I not heard the clatter of Alexander's crutches and Aunt Hannah's cane.

How she chuckled when she realized what it all meant. We took our places. Alexander uncovered a plate and solemnly passed it to Aunt Hannah. It contained a large chicken leg. I looked at him expectantly, but he passed me an empty one and put a similar one at his place. Then in an undertone he said to me, "We must make believe", and without giving me an opportunity to reply, he began making various sounds with his mouth which soon had the desired effect. Aunt Hannah smiled—"Alexander", she remonstrated, "you eat too fast. You'll choke." Then turning to me she said, "He has a splendid appetite."

After the chicken Aunt Hannah had ice cream and a liberal slice of ginger bread, and again Alexander smacked his lips, and not until Aunt Hannah declared she "could eat no more" did he decide to pass me a slice of the ginger bread and to take a slice himself.

I wish I could remember all the wonderful stories I listened to that evening,—when Aunt Hannah forgot the present and returned to the days of her girlhood, but gradually she grew more serious and sinking into her old rocker she closed her sightless eyes and murmured—"Eighty-one to-day." Suddenly she burst into song—

"Swing low sweet chariot coming for
to carry me home."

Alexander slipped away from the table and took his favorite position at her feet. I was left alone. Quietly I said "Good night" and went thoughtfully home.

Communications

A CONGESTION REMEDY

TO THE EDITOR:

A number of articles have appeared recently referring to the riches the government holds in store in the shape of public lands open to settlement by homesteaders.

In one of these (see *Christian Herald*, April 1, 1908), a summary of such land in each state was given, amounting to 434,755,000 acres. The government is represented as with outstretched hands offering to heads of families these holdings, which, for the payment of \$1.25 an acre, residence of fourteen months, and the making of certain improvements would become their property. (Irrigated lands of course being higher in price.) As an incentive, also, a bill is before Congress having the approval of the president; to double the amount of land which can be thus entered, making in most cases 320 acres for each homestead. About the same date an article appeared in your paper, written by a professional man in Wisconsin, giving some results of a settlers' first year's efforts in that state. One being, that he had marketed \$700 worth of potatoes from ten acres of ground.

If the government has public lands of such character that a livelihood and independence could be gained with it and is so desirous of getting the home seeker upon the lands; then the epithet "Uncle Sam" assumes a new beauty, and stands in relation to the people as a father, and well may the children "rise up and call him blessed."

Now, to those who are following the trend of the times, it is apparent that organizations of many descriptions are at work to render more tolerable the conditions of the thousands of homeless families in the congested centers who are just above the line of destitution, to save from starvation these who have fallen under the tread of the more "fit to survive"; to heal the wounds of moral contamination, to check the growth of social crime, and to provide an outlet for the instincts of play and self activity in the growing youth, and that additional experiments are constantly being tried, and all these in the effort to solve the problems of congested city life in the interest of human economy. But all this work can only cool the parching tongue

in the generating fires of social, moral, and physical debauchery; can only put a bit of neutralizing medium into the cesspool, the source of which is as unfailing as the existence of the multitudes, and the poison as virulent as the worst of society untouched by these agencies.

In the face of these conditions there has come from every side, the echo of the call of nature "back to the soil." "Back to the soil"; some of us as workers in the crowded district institutions have felt refreshed by the evidence of public sentiment in favor of the "simple life" with nature. The pen of the popular writer, and the hum of the automobile have alike, with the president's efforts to stay the exodus from the country, thrilled us as we contemplated the approaching vacation. But how about the sweltering millions who never get to the country, or have a vacation? Some of these would like to flee with their children from their haunts of evil and vicious environment into the outstretched arms of "Uncle Sam" and there plant and garner and live as nature intended.

But while these people would like to accept the proposition, and while every family so removed would help to solve the problems confronting the many expensive organizations, there is nothing at all being done, either by the government or by any one else to open the way, or render assistance to those inclined to go, except what is being done by the Jewish Removal Society, and the Salvation Army.

Could not a movement be financed, to colonize a number of families in a favorable section of the public lands domain? And if with reasonable assistance the first two or three years the colonists should demonstrate the practicability of any industrious man supporting his family and becoming a home owner, would it not result in one of the most effectual methods for the relief of congested living?

Would not the government welcome such an enterprise? The writer invites criticism or discussion of this subject, in the hope that a movement may be instituted, which will aid in solving the problems contingent upon congested living in large cities.

W. R. PEARSON.

Teachers College, New York City.

The Trend of Things

Judge Lindsey says in the *Independent* for August 20, that he knows of a city of less than 300,000 inhabitants in which there were over 3,000 arrests among the boys in one year. He tells about an experience in a police court in that city where the judge

and the counsel were taken up in trying a boy of twelve for throwing a brick at a citizen. "The next day I met the boy in the bullpen amid hardened criminals. He had chains about his waist and knees. I asked the boy why he threw the brick. He

said: 'I never meant no harm, mister; we was just playing.' I saw the miserable shack and crowded district where he lived. Can the boy be blamed if he continued to throw the bricks? Could we be blamed if we shed a tear at the absurdity and injustice of it all? Can we be blamed if we turn from the act of the boy to cry out against the shameful criminal state?

"This child is a wonderful human creature—a divine machine. We have much to expect from him, but he has much to expect from us, and what he returns depends largely upon what we give.

"We shall suffer with him whether we will or no, or we do not share his burdens. Let us not weary of the struggle till the child gets a square deal; and until he does we cannot have and do not deserve that glorious manhood, that splendid citizenship that will come alone from duty done in childhood's sacred cause."

Another story related in the New York newspapers of last week goes a little further in showing that the boy in the street does not get a square deal. This particular boy was, at the time "criminally" engaged in a game of cards on the front steps of his tenement home. A policeman approached, commanded him to move on and the boy moved at a run with the policeman at his heels. The officer fired several shots at the fleeing miscreant and when he was finally caught, after trying to escape into a friendly areaway, he was brought before the court and charged with disorderly conduct and attempt to break into a private residence! The judge discharged the boy and reprimanded the officer, but "could we be blamed if we shed a tear at the absurdity and injustice of it all?"

* * *

William Hard writes in *Everybody's Magazine* for September on The Law of the Killed and Wounded, an article which concerns itself with accidents happening to employes while serving their employers. He gives some striking instances of the practical working out of the doctrine of assumed risk, the doctrine of fellow servant, and the doctrine of contributory negligence, and shows up the legal lottery which the injured employe enters into when he tries to recover damages. Mr. Hard believes that the framing of an adequate employer's liability law is a distinct social need,—“the employer, as an employer and the employe as an employe are not the only ones concerned. The whole public is concerned, deeply, financially, morally. . . .

"Every year the stream of industrial accidents flows on, and every year it sweeps hundreds and thousands of families away from their little perilous stations of self-respecting independence down the irresis-

tible current first to poverty and then to charity.

"Accidents are no more closely related to the surgery of the doctor than they are to that social surgery which is performed by charity societies and which, though it lets no blood, leaves forever a scar on the mind.

"Why shouldn't every industry carry the burden of its own killed and wounded? Why shouldn't compensation for disability be just as much a part of the cost of business as it is of the cost of war? Why shouldn't the workman who goes into his daily fight with modern machinery be assured that his injury will be regarded as an honorable wound, entitling him to decent consideration? Why shouldn't the industrial soldier, meeting his death in forms as terrible as those of any battle-field, die knowing that he will leave, if not glory, at least a few years' food to his family?

"Why shouldn't society, having invented machines which make business one long war, treat the enlisted men at least like enlisted men and, if they are incapacitated, assign them temporarily, or permanently, to the rank and pay of pensioners of peace?"

In the October *Everybody's* Mr. Hard will discuss the improvement on the present law of accidents made by foreign countries and by industrial employers in the United States.

* * *

William McAndrew writing in the *World's Work* for September on Where the High School Fails, believes that the college influence has passed into the high school life to such a degree that the latter institution has become too aristocratic in its nature. The college professor declares "that the function of the college is to produce a small and highly trained patriciate, an aristocracy, if you will, men of high breeding and supreme attainments who will rise above the level of the commonplace." "The high school," writes Mr. McAndrew, "should abandon its idea of being an 'institution' with traditions, cults, doctrines, and holier-than-thou proclamations; it should get down to a humble endeavor to serve all children. It should cease maintaining that its mental food, cut and dried by experts of unproved fitness for life here and now, is the only proper nourishment for growing boys and girls. It should study the real world about us, and try to reproduce the best of it under the best conditions in the class room. There are thousands of teachers able and anxious to do this if the debilitating bonds of organization, uniformity, and system, which have been perfected by education in the past generation, be relaxed."

Social Forces

By the Editor

WHAT WE BELIEVE

Faith is a therapeutic agent, much relied upon by wise physicians no less than by charlatans and quacks. Faith is the great energizer, through which we tap new levels of physical and mental resources. Faith is the universal socializing power, transforming savages into citizens, and resolving ancient inheritances of animal fear and personal hatred and selfish egotism into wholesome antagonism to that which injures society, and a desire for that higher individual good which is to be found only in the common welfare. Let us therefore build up our faith, in reason and mutual understanding, and let us not, through craven fear of being misjudged, neglect to formulate our creed either in religion, or in hygiene, or yet in social work.

We believe in men. In spite of all individual failures and incomplete lives; in spite of war and crime; in spite of suffering and disease; in spite of accident and premature death; even in spite of poverty and dependence: we believe in the inherent nobility and the latent tendency towards the good in the human soul. The failure is accidental, partial, temporary. The desire for right living and rational conduct is universal, natural, and in the end dominant.

Love for mankind, such as socialism, for example, assumes, and extending even to our enemies, as Christianity enjoins, implies that in the last analysis mankind is lovable. A bad heredity, a bad education, a vicious environment, an ill-timed temptation, limiting or distorting habits, an imperfect bodily mechanism, or some other impediment, may in every instance for the time being thwart the full development of personality, but just as surely as physical nature on the whole tends towards health, so surely does the soul of man tend also towards health, towards development into a social, neighbor-loving, law-abiding, genuinely civilized being. This our faith is in men, not in an abstraction, but in the particular human beings who make our own nation and who people the earth in this generation, in those who toil in factories and on railways, in those who throng the offices and stores, in our children at home and in school, in women who live at home and in those who earn their livelihood abroad, even in those forlorn men and women who ask for charity and in those who put themselves outside the pale of social life by infringing upon the laws; the poor and the criminal, we believe in them quite as much as in the rich and prosperous. Very often their burdens are heavier and their shortcomings more easily to be excused.

We believe in natural law both in the physical and in the spiritual world and that the two worlds are one. Fire burns. Rum poisons. Vice degrades. Dishonesty reacts disastrously. Dirt and infection destroy vigor and life itself. Worry also kills. Overwork, excessive hours of labor, nervous strain, impure and poisoned air, congestion of population, a low standard of living, are not merely results of an inherited uneconomic and unsocial regime, though they are that primarily. They are also, secondarily, causes—and the main causes—of the grave social evils under which our towns groan and even our farms cry aloud for relief.

Men are at least in so far free that they may do the things which injure the body and deform the soul, and it is our duty to learn for ourselves, and to teach others as we have opportunity, how to exercise wise choice. To do this we must be able to gain their confidence, first by sincere, disinterested sympathy, and then by such careful study and patient consideration of the great common needs of men, and of the special needs of our own neighbors as shall enable us to teach truth and avoid error. We shall make no mistake if we dwell earnestly upon the value of temperance, justice and charity; of fresh air, simple nutritious food and rational exercise; of the cultivation of those personal habits which by common consent are called good and those qualities of co-operation and good fellowship which fit one to play his part in the community. For the reason that we believe in law we seek to bring all men to a better understanding of its operation in all spheres which vitally affect their welfare.

We believe in religion. Worship and spiritual communion are among the first of all means of individual growth and social integration. Because social work is for the most part unsectarian it is sometimes most erroneously thought to be irreligious. The fact is that the whole religious world is becoming insufferably weary of sectarianism, and it is safe to say that if the divisions in the churches had not been created in the past they would not now be deliberately established. The organization of charity on an unsectarian basis has served to strengthen rather than undermine true religion. Hebrew, Catholic, Presbyterian, Methodist and Unitarian have worked together with religious fervor and an essentially common faith for the regeneration of families whose affairs have met shipwreck, for the establishment of charitable institutions, for the repeal of unjust statutes, for the creation of a fragmentary bit of the kingdom of heaven in some neglected corner of the earth. One day their faith will become articulate, their hands will join in a more perfect union and the deep underlying harmony of all religious life will become apparent.

We believe in service. For some months the writer has been under pledge to write on the subject of friendly visiting. That pledge is now we trust at least partially fulfilled. Even as we believe in religion, in law, and in the latent promise in the soul of all God's creatures, so we believe in the utility and the beauty of personal service in every well considered form. We believe in it so seriously and sincerely that we deem visitors worthy of selection and training. A capacity for friendship together with an interest in the particular family and a capacity for helping them are the first qualifications.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

THE INDUSTRIAL SITUATION IN CHICAGO

The industrial situation in Chicago, as related to the charitable agencies, is far from cheerful. Much improvement has occurred since the depression reached its lowest point last winter, and the conditions are unquestionably much less severe, on the whole, than they were at that time. This improvement has been noted in most lines of business, but the reaction has been slow and without uniformity. For example: One industry may have shown scarcely any improvement, while another may have resumed almost normal activity. At this writing the Pullman Car Works is employing two-thirds of its normal force, while the Illinois Steel Works is employing not more than forty per cent of the number of men on its rolls prior to the panic. Large companies devoted to the manufacture of freight cars, are almost idle; while one of the branches of the International Harvester Co., near by, is employing a full force of men.

This irregularity in the manner in which industries have been affected by the depression, makes it peculiarly difficult to forecast the work which charitable agencies must face next winter. There is no doubt, however, that they will have a busy winter. The demand upon the principal Chicago agencies during the past spring and current summer has been about twice as heavy as during the spring and summer of 1907. The charities will enter the winter with this handicap and then will face the increase of work which always follows the arrival of the season

of cold and storms, and the cessation of building operations and other outdoor activities.

It is not anticipated that the demand for relief will reach last winter's magnitude. The moderate improvement noted in most industries, and the marked improvement in some, will prevent a return to the deplorable conditions of six months ago, although it is probable that in certain directions the need will be as great as then. The lapse of time since the depression began has permitted a certain readjustment too, in the affairs of many families, which, in the early days of the trouble required charitable help, a readjustment which will enable them to maintain themselves, even though they do not return to the employment which the depression cut off. On the other hand, many families which have managed by close economy to avoid charity so far, will find their resources completely exhausted, and will be compelled to turn to the charitable agencies for help.

It seems probable that organizations engaged in charitable work may find the task of obtaining money, increasingly difficult. That part of the population from which charitable funds must come, has suffered severely, and will feel less able to contribute than before the full effect of the hard times was experienced. The impulse of sympathy for the unemployed, will have subsided in some measure, or at least, its keenness will have become dulled. Self-pity will have begun to demand a share of the public interest. All this emphasizes the importance of carefully prepared plans on the part of the charitable agencies. The

most efficient workers should be placed at strategic points. Preparations should be made to enlist and organize an effective body of volunteers. If emergency employment schemes are likely to be undertaken, now is the time to plan them. In short, a carefully considered winter program should be constructed. Such a program will not only enable a charitable society to enter the winter with a feeling of courage and confidence, but it should serve to forestall and prevent some of the ill-considered, impulsive relief measures which a season of unusual distress is likely to inspire.

The charities are forewarned. In that lies a great advantage. Last winter they were overwhelmed by an unexpected deluge of demands. This winter they know what to expect. It will be their own fault if they are not in some measure prepared for whatever comes.

WINTER'S OUTLOOK **IN ST. PAUL**

The St. Paul Associated Charities reports that the outlook for the coming winter is bad. Undertakings requiring the employment of labor have been only temporary in character. There is reason to fear that they will close upon the approach of cold weather. Then the wages paid, when compared with the cost of living, have been small, almost to the point of the ridiculous. Factories have not resumed their normal activity.

The demands upon the St. Paul charities during April, May, June and July were double the average for these months. August showed improvement. While the number of men needed in the large harvest fields immediately to the west and northwest, has been exaggerated in the public press, still there has been a demand for considerable numbers who have found work.

A FORECAST **FROM WASHINGTON**

The outlook for the winter, as viewed from the district offices of the Washington Associated Charities, is gloomy. There have never been many applications

during the summer months. In June of this year there were 613 applications and in July, 903. In June, 1907, there were 477 applications and in July, 1907, 699. In June and July, 1907, \$500 was given in relief and in June and July, 1908, \$950. That money is not coming into the homes of the poor is shown by the fact that during June and July of 1907, \$2,000 was collected from stamp savers and in June and July, 1908, only \$1,100 was collected. The agents of the association report that in the alleys and small streets in the Southeast, almost every sixth house is for rent and in some places there are as many as four and five houses for rent in one block. In the Northeast the same condition prevails. In the Southwest while not so many houses are for rent, the passerby is struck by the number of "to let" signs to be seen, and in the Northwest in the poorer streets, the same sign is much in evidence. An inquiry has shown that the poor are doubling up, two families in one house and that many are reducing their expenses by renting one or two rooms. The condition in the Southeast and the Northeast may be due to the Navy Yard dismissing something over 2,000 men and the Printing Office in the Northeast dismissing over five hundred. The industrial trades do not seem to be as bad in the city of Washington as in other cities. More men are at work now than last fall, winter or even spring. This is so because the unions of this city, last year were on strike. It will be hard for the untrained man to secure work here this winter. The men who are suffering in all sections of the city are the untrained. The unions report practically all of their men at work. Possibly five per cent less men are employed or will be employed this winter than in a normal year. Building trades men will have no difficulty in finding work. Laborers will find work scarce. Strangers will find it almost impossible to obtain work unless they are capable of working in the finer arts, such as designing, interior painting or stone carving. Clerks and mercantile workers can get work from November until the spring.

THE DEEMER FRESH AIR FARM

After an examination covering some time and thorough in detail, Secretary J. M. Hanson of the Youngstown, Ohio, Associated Charities, has issued a report unfavorable to the Deemer Fresh Air Farm near that city. As funds have been solicited in and about Pittsburgh and through New England, the case is of more than local interest.

Mr. Hanson has "been forced to the conclusion that it is not a fit place to take children, not so much because of the character of the physical surroundings as because of the character of the people in charge of it. The universal testimony of the neighbors was borne out by personal observation. No children should hear the language used before them by those in charge. In addition to this, the financial side of the work should be condemned. There is no one outside of the family who knows anything about the receipts and disbursements. A few groups of children are entertained each season, but it is the impression that this work consumes but a small portion of the collections of the two girls, who give their time to the work."

Mr. Hanson states that Deemer, the head of the family, is accused of drunkenness and that he and his daughters, who are the collectors, have entire control of all money secured for which they make no accounting, and he draws a connection between this and the fact that while before going into this work they had no property beyond household furniture and personal effects, they now are said to own real estate in Boardman, Pittsburgh and Allegheny. It is declared that the children are not properly fed or supervised, "a girl of thirteen having entire charge of the party of little ones." The daughters of Mr. Deemer, Ella, Lottie and Katie, are the chief collectors and Mr. Hanson believes that their main source of income has been through soliciting in the East.

Mr. Deemer, who denies all the allegations made, has threatened to bring suit for damages against Mr. Hanson.

NEW YORK FIRE DEPARTMENT RELIEF

In January, 1908, Mayor McClellan of New York directed his commissioners of accounts to make an investigation of the methods and efficiency of the Fire Department of the city.

The Merchants' Association's committee on insurance tendered to the commissioners the expert services of Captain Greely S. Curtis, consulting engineer, for the purposes of the examination and, acting under the instruction of the commissioners, Captain Curtis examined certain features of the organization, administration and operation of the Fire Department, and on behalf of the Merchants' Association, made to the commissioners of accounts a report on the organization, administration, fire force operation, fire methods, etc. In the section on departmental methods the paragraph on the Fire Department's relief fund will be of particular interest to New York readers:

The fund which in 1906 had total receipts in excess of \$600,000, is maintained under the treasurership of the fire commissioner assisted by a secretary appointed for the purpose. The present secretary, Peter J. Quigley, was appointed April, 1904, and receives a salary of \$3,000 per year. This position is exempt from the control of the Civil Service Commission. There seems to be no good reason why it should not be included with the others under the civil service control.

The relief fund is frequently augmented by donations from generous citizens who wish to testify their appreciation of the work of the Fire Department. As a matter of fact, such donations do not directly benefit the Fire Department, but are practically transferred to the general purposes of the city. This condition obtains in consequence of a decision of the corporation counsel to the effect that the amount of the relief fund principal existing May 2, 1904, of \$848,555.74 must be neither encroached upon nor exceeded. As the relief fund receives the larger part of its support from the excise tax, the comptroller limits payments from this source to so much as is sufficient to provide for the difference between the obligations of the fund and the income to it from other sources. The effect of this ruling is such that if a citizen makes a donation to the relief fund, the amount of his donation is withheld by the comptroller from the next payment made by the latter to the relief

fund from the excise taxes. In other words the citizen does not give his money to the firemen's relief fund at all, but indirectly to the city for ordinary municipal purposes. This situation should be made generally known to the public for the benefit of future benefactors of the Fire Department whose donations could presumably be turned to better account along other lines.

ECONOMIES

AMONG THE POOR

One of the stock questions in classes in high school political economy used to be, "If the difference in the cost of two articles of practically the same nature were five cents, would you hesitate in purchasing the more expensive?" That question has become extremely practical during the past few months and there has been little hesitation in families of the poor about its proper answer. The Bureau of Social Research of the New York School of Philanthropy started an inquiry last winter to find out how some of these people whose incomes had been considerably lessened during the hard times have been able to make ends meet.

The results of this investigation by Miss Zaida E. Udell were compiled from the records of fifty families whose heads were accustomed to a certain amount of privation. These families were located through the churches, settlements and other reliable sources in close enough touch with the families to have known their circumstances for several years. Thirty-six trades or occupations were represented, only six of which were unskilled. All but five of the men, that is four-fifths, are skilled workmen whose wages are grouped as follows: Those earning ten dollars or less a week, eleven; eleven dollars to fifteen dollars a week, twenty-seven; sixteen to twenty dollars a week, eight; over twenty dollars a week, four.

The wages, however, do not give a correct estimate of income for several of the men are workers in seasonal trades who may earn twenty dollars to twenty-five dollars a week during the busy season and then be idle for several weeks at a time.

During the winter in only eighteen cases were the heads of families the sole

wage earners. The chief economies practised were in food and clothing. Sixty-eight per cent spent less on food than they were accustomed to. One head of a family stated, "We used to think we must have meat three times a day. Now we are glad if we get it once." Most families had to depend upon bread, cereals, and a few of the cheaper vegetables, including peas, beans and lentils.

About the same percentage of families saved on clothes. In a few cases clothes were given by relatives or other people, but most of them had to make over or otherwise manage to get along almost entirely with what they had. One mother would not allow her boy to play on the street because he would wear out his shoes. Another woman inserted pieces of pasteboard in the children's shoes when they gave out so that the children need not stay away from school.

Only four of this group of fifty families reduced their rent expenditures—three by moving to cheaper quarters and a fourth by obtaining a position as janitress. Fuel, like rent, was considered a necessity which must be reckoned with. Very few bought wood, but each day there was an effort to get together a supply large enough to carry them through the day. One woman economized by staying in bed with her children until late in the morning. Another one discovered that by putting a brick in the stove not so much fuel would be needed. One couple, both over fifty, had no fuel throughout the month of April except broken boxes which they used in heating water for tea and coffee.

At least three-fourths of these families carry life insurance and twenty-five of the thirty-eight managed to keep it paid up. Ten families were able to get along entirely without outside help. The others were obliged to apply in some form or other to churches, settlements or other institutions. People with small incomes are willing to receive free medical advice who object to charity in any other form, and in this group, ten families went to the church doctor, dispensary or hospital. Thirteen had their own physicians, four had both free and

paid treatment while twenty-three either needed no care or there was no report. A large proportion of the families was obliged to depend upon other resources than temporary work. Five were helped by relatives; seventeen borrowed money and about twenty-four, or nearly one-half, had to go in debt. Only one received a benefit from a lodge. While the records indicate that only thirteen of the families were helped by church or settlement, it is probable that the proportion is larger. Strange as it may seem, in almost none of the families visited could sickness be traced to the hardships experienced.

On the other hand, the consequences of the hard experiences were not all bad. Several of the women visited acknowledged that they had learned much by the experience, for they discovered what they could do in an emergency.

Labor Day, 1908

Graham Taylor

This year Labor Day dawns in comparative peace. The fact that there are so few and inconsequential strikes and lockouts is partly due to the trade agreements which were so widely entered into in the spring. It is due in larger part perhaps to the precarious hold on employment during the long and sharp financial stringency and trade depression. In hard times both organized labor and its employers take account of stock, not only in the items which appear on their account books, but also in their relations with each other. More advantage might have been taken of the surplus of labor over the demand for it to reduce wages and increase hours. But the labor press has made little complaint on this score, while it has had of course few gains to report or demands to insist upon in these respects. The truce on the field of actual conflict, however, is being vigorously improved to strengthen the positions of both sides. Employers have very widely won the open shop, which in almost all instances, has been yielded without the struggle which labor was in too disadvantageous a position to make with any prospect of success. The unions

have taken advantage of the hard times appeal to recruit their membership, which prosperity always tends to decrease.

Meanwhile the struggle has been transferred by both employers and employes from the duel between each other to the field of political action. Never before in the history of American politics have there been such direct and determined efforts made both by organized labor and organized employers to shape the presidential platforms at the national party conventions. Their open and organized lobbies, their appearance in force with specific demands before the resolutions' committees at Chicago and Denver were new and significant signs of the transference of the scene of action to the polls and to legislative chambers at the national capital and the state capitals. That the lines of battle are drawn to remain there, where it is more and more evident that the fight is to be fought out, is now more a fact of current history than a prediction. For, both the American Federation of Labor and the National Manufacturers' Association deliberately and advisedly took their respective positions before the national conventions over the issue between them as to their rights before the law and at the hand of the courts.

Court decisions during the year, especially in the judicial use of the power of injunctions, have unquestionably gone against the interests, and even the future effectiveness of organized labor, as seriously as is claimed by Mr. Gompers and the executive council of the American Federation of Labor. Their appeal to politics is not, from their point of view, any too soon, either to call for a halt in what they claim to be discrimination against labor organizations in judicial procedure, or to check the threatened inroad of socialism upon the ranks of the trade unions. For the Socialist Party and press have taken instant and vigorous advantage of the alleged disadvantage of labor before the law to discourage wage workers in trusting to anything less radical than the uncompromising class conflict to establish by law the co-operative commonwealth, with

its common ownership of all the materials and tools of production. To their aid James Kier Hardie has come from England to attempt to ally the trade unionists with the socialists here, in such a political labor party as he has long led in Parliament.

Mr. Gompers' endorsement of the democratic platform and candidate has been ratified with remarkable unanimity, not only by the executive council of the American Federation of Labor, but by the membership vote in state and city federations and by national and local trade unions. So far there has been little or no significant dissent either in the labor press or in the official actions of unions. At some of the larger industrial centers, notably at Chicago, the ratification of Mr. Gompers' position has been taken with an enthusiastic unanimity, broken only by the protests and negative votes of the small socialist minority. Campaign committees have been appointed by central labor bodies at many industrial centers, large enough to cover every election district to work for the election of the approved candidates for national, state and city offices. It remains to be seen what political policy will issue from this initial national campaign of organized labor, and what its effect upon the rank and file will be. The marked success or failure of the "labor vote" will deeply affect the spirit of the workingmen voters and also the policy of their leaders. It may turn them either toward the more neutral position between the parties, whence the balance of power may be directed and wielded by advisory influence; or it may impel them toward the formation of a separate labor party, to gain the solidity given by organization and discipline, and the machinery to put candidates of its own in the field, when endorsements of others do not answer a better purpose.

Perhaps the most significant emphasis laid during the year upon the non-political industrial policy was the prominence given by the National Civic Federation to its trade agreement department by the appointment of John Mitchell to have personal charge of its work and by securing his acceptance of the position. The decision thus reached by the influential

representatives of organized labor and employing capital who constitute the federation is of special interest on two accounts. Its avowed purpose is to promote industrial peace through collective bargaining. And, in basing its efforts to this end upon the trade agreement, the organization of employes is presupposed and therefore assented to.

The progress of the Women's Trade Union Leagues, under the presidency of Mrs. Raymond Robins, has been marked not only by solidifying the membership and developing its self-direction but also by identifying with it the movement for woman's suffrage among working women. A "political primer club" was organized in the Chicago league to study politics and civil government, the primary and election laws.

The approach of the churches toward exerting direct influence in the industrial sphere has been decided and determined. Some of the most imperative demands ever made upon the conscience and loyalty of Christian people to express their faith in terms of economic justice and industrial relationships have appeared during the year. Books by scholars have made the most incisive application of Christian ethics to property and labor. Voluntary associations for the promotion of social consciousness and action within the churches have developed denominational organizations with the same purpose. The department of The Church and Labor in the Presbyterian church is now as officially recognized, manned and supported as its long established Boards of Home and Foreign Missions. The National Council of the Congregational churches has added an Industrial Committee to its regular executive agencies, as have several of its state associations. Not only is an active propaganda prosecuted through these agencies by literature, addresses, discussions and resolutions, but fraternal delegates are appointed to represent the churches in local labor assemblies, chambers of commerce and other industrial bodies. While at a few centers these delegates have been denied official recognition by labor unions, the approach of the churches has generally been welcomed by them wherever it has been man-

fully and tactfully made. The Methodist Federation of Social Service has also been organized and was given a place on the program at the recent Quadrennial General Conference in Baltimore.

Perhaps the most surprisingly advanced position in this direction was taken by the bishops of the Church of England in their encyclical issued from their conference at Lambeth Palace last month, in which no less than two hundred and forty-three of them participated. It impressed upon churchmen that property is a trust held for the benefit of the community, for which they have a moral responsibility, first for the character and general social effect of any business in which their money is invested, second for the treatment of employes, third for the observance of laws relating thereto, and fourth for the payment of just wages. To these ends the bishops affirmed that the social mission and the social principles of Christianity should be given more prominence in the teachings of the church and they called upon the church to recognize the ideals of brotherhood underlying the democratic, and even socialistic, movements and "to show them sympathy in so far as they strive to procure for all just treatment and a real opportunity to live true human lives."

With the comprehensiveness and benignity of an apostolic benediction, which lifts the veil upon a better year yet to dawn, they declare: "All races and peoples, whatever their language and conditions, must be welded into one body, and the organization of different races, living side by side, into separate or independent churches on the basis of race or color, is inconsistent with the vital and essential principles of the unity of Christ's churches."

An Advance in Hospital Service

Robert W. Hebbard
Commissioner of Public Charities
New York

The Kings County Hospital of the Department of Public Charities, New York,

after some years of unsuccessful effort, succeeded in the spring of the present year in adding two automobile ambulances to its equipment. Each of these machines cost \$4,000 complete. One, the larger of the two, is a steam machine, while the other is of the gasoline type. They were built on the department's own detailed specifications and each builder understood that he was in a competition for subsequent business with the other. The result was, apparently, that no pains were spared in the construction of the machines and they were delivered in first-class, up-to-date condition. These ambulances were constructed primarily for transfer, rather than for emergency service, although there is no reason why they should not be used for the last named purpose when necessary. In fact, the steamer, while both were at the City Hall recently for inspection by the mayor, was called in the emergency to take a patient injured in a street car on Broadway to a nearby hospital and immediately proved its efficiency in such service.

The interior construction of these ambulances is such that they can be used to carry two patients on stretchers in the bottom of the ambulance and two more on stretchers arranged several feet above the lower ones. The equipment can also be arranged so as to seat from eight to ten patients who are able to travel in that way.

One of these automobile ambulances is used for the transfer of patients from their homes in the Borough of Brooklyn to the hospital, while the other goes to the Borough of Queens to bring patients, formerly detained in the jail or elsewhere under undesirable conditions, to the psychopathic ward of the hospital. In the afternoon they are usually employed in bringing in patients from the emergency hospitals of the department at Bradford street and Coney Island.

The ambulances have now been in use for approximately six months, doing hard work and plenty of it every week day, and neither machine has been out of commission during the entire period. The necessity of employing expert automobile enginemen was of course recog-

nized from the outset, and each contractor was requested to select the man he desired to run his particular car. The result has been excellent, good men thoroughly familiar with their respective machines, having thus been secured with the co-operation of the manufacturers.

Before the ambulances were put into service the fear was expressed that they would subject the patients to an excessive amount of jolting. This has not proved to be the case, however, but to the contrary, it has been found that there is much less jolting than arises through the use of the ordinary horse ambulance. It has also been shown that one of the machines is easily able to do as much work as two of the horse transfer ambulances, and, unlike the horses, the automobile ambulances do not give out on account of the hot weather. Formerly, when only the horse transfer ambulances were used at this hospital, the work of transfer was almost always behind, but with the use of the machines it is kept well up to date. Besides this, patients transferred long distances instead of feeling worse for the journey, are in many cases found to be feeling much better owing, doubtless, to the fresh air and the absence of discomfort.

Since these new ambulances at the Kings County Hospital have been found so effective, satisfactory and useful in the work of the hospital, the Board of Trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, has voted to request permission to add two automobile ambulances to its equipment.

It may confidently be asserted that the power ambulance because of its marked efficiency and comfort has come to stay, and that the day is not far distant when the machine will supplant the horse ambulance not only for transfer service but for emergency work as well. A very important consideration is the fact that the use of the automobile ambulance in place of the horse ambulance improves the sanitary condition of the hospital, by doing away to a great extent with the nuisance of the stable, including the pest of flies ordinarily to be found there.

Utilized Social Forces

Among the plain people election day and primary day and the campaigning days in between are occasions for a neighborly comradeship such as is never realized at any other time. Men who have had little to do with each other find something in common to talk about and to do. The good fellowship easily crosses the lines of party division in the good natured rivalry which far more constantly characterizes the scenes about the precinct polling places, than any indications of ill temper or strife. Above all the divisiveness and partisanship, and above all the sordidness and shame of corrupt politics, men do rise together when exercising the rights and duties of a common citizen. Those who think little or nothing intelligently of the public interests at stake, do scan the tickets to see if they can vote for a friend. Many are greatly perplexed to know which of two friends they shall vote for, when they have to choose between them. This personal friendship, in very many, transcends all claims of party loyalty or public duty. But it is at least a personal preference, a personal choice. It shows that the voters can and will respond to some other worthier appeal than that of party domination or blind allegiance to it. If the human touch of social fellowship could be added to our efforts to arouse public spirit and to train voters for intelligent citizenship, it would supply the force now lacking in all our movements for better political organization and result. It is the continuousness of this human touch and social fellowship among its constituency that has in no small part given Tammany Hall its power with the people. Until those who are striving together for the common good have the will and find the way to identify themselves with each other in a social fellowship that will span the time between elections and associate each successive campaign with the other, the upward movement in our civic life will have to contend with an inertia, if not an opposition, that will array odds against it, as insurmountable as they are unnecessary.

As They Come
to
Ellis Island



The Slave

Photographs by Lewis W. Hine



The Germans



From Bohemia

The Cracker Industry in Pittsburgh¹

Elizabeth Beardsley Butler

It is a far cry from the making of food-stuffs in a solitary kitchen, to the building of a seven-story factory, whence goods are shipped to all the United States. Individual bread-baking, we have known, but individual cracker-baking has become an anachronism. It is scarcely a surprise to find them combined in one big industry, in a chain of factories reaching from coast to coast, with careful arrangement for the making of this product here and that product there, with large economy of labor, freight charges, and machinery, with a hand on the pulse of the market, so that output can follow, pace by pace, the variations of demand. One finds, too, co-existing with the chain of factories, local independent plants, sending out their goods within a radius of a hundred miles. The infinite varieties of crackers, their manifold uses, their ready adaptability to circumstance, has made them not only the strong support of the beleaguered housewife, but the staple food of the ten thousand houseless ones whom the city has called into its midst to forge out both their individual lives and a new way of life for the ten thousand who are to follow them. To both parties, to the old and to the new, the cracker stands, a comforting ally. The industry has passed the stage of apologetics. It is linked with the more permanent manifestations of new ways of life.

Yet, with all these causes for growth, we do not find the cracker factories merely meeting well-established lines of public demand. On the contrary, we find the American cry, like the Gallic cry of old, for "aliquid novi", being met by the bewildering and irrepressible inventiveness of the cracker-planning mind. Not only are we given more and more improved styles of the soda cracker, and the ginger snap, and other friends, honored by length of acquaintance, but we are given hitherto

unimagined varieties of cracker-cakes, marshmallow and chocolate, grated nuts, and Scotch oatmeal cakes with an ancestry of flat stones behind them, but now, like their confrères, of the progeny of the oven. Even cheese sandwiches, changelings in truth, have made their appearance among the rest. The list of products, even of a small factory, makes a magazine-sized pamphlet with four pages of fine type, and for a large factory, it assumes the proportions of a small book.

What wonder then that the cracker industry in Pittsburgh stands well up on the list of minor industries in the demand for labor? After mercantile houses, and laundries which are perpetually effacing the traces of the black smoke; and stogy factories, users of the brown tobacco of the Pennsylvania fields, the cracker industry stands sixth in the number of women employed.

Of the 1810 cracker factory hands, 928, a little more than half, are women. There are five factories of such differing types that each one of them might belong to a different generation of the industry. From the little four-story plant that has stood looking out at the river for twenty years, and does much of its work by hand now as it did in the beginning, altogether employing only thirteen men and twenty-five women, to the huge seven-story fire-trap that is forced, whether it will or no, at the hands of its 1,100 employes to turn out every variety of product of which it is in any way capable, and to the more modest but newer five-story building which boasts a force of only 175, there are stratified, as it were, in Pittsburgh, the different stages of the growth both of the industry and of its adaptations of factory construction.

Men in the cracker factories do the mixing of the dough. They know the formulæ and the secret combinations on which every manufacturer builds his faith in his business success; they are the only skilled workers in the plant.

¹This is the third of a series of four articles by Miss Butler on women's work. It is abridged from her report in the Pittsburgh Survey.

In one factory, they are paid from \$75 to \$100 a month. In the very largest plant, there are only three of them; in others, there are not more than two, sometimes there is but one. Men are employed also to tend the ovens, to work in the storeroom and shipping departments, to polish cans and to carry the heavy trays of dough. The women's work is to tend the cracker machines, to pack, to ice the cakes and to mend cans. They are kept as a rule in one department, not because this is a trade which they have learned, but because the attainment of maximum speed requires not only physical but mental concentration on the doing of one thing, the repetition of one operation a thousand times in a day, ten thousand times in a week, and over and over again from month to month as the year goes round. A girl may be given a job in a cracker factory, and in an hour's teaching be able to do the thing as she is told, but it will be perhaps a week, perhaps a month, before she can do the same thing as many times in a day as the experienced girl who was there before her. Her muscles have yet to be taught to keep pace with the machine. Her body has yet to grow accustomed to the smell of the dough—if she works near the ovens,—or to the heat of the cooling crackers if she is a packer, and to the sight beneath her eyes of the constantly travelling chains. New girls come and go. It is not often that they acquire individuality in the eyes of their employers, for they work in numbers too large and in operations too mechanical, for their personalities to have significance. Where they come from or where they go to is not known. It is certain that they are in large measure a shifting group of workers, but the men who deal with them do not seem to know what industries they enter. It may be that they drift to the mangle-rooms of laundries, or to some of the screw and bolt works, or to packing other kinds of food-stuffs in canneries or candy factories. They have the speed equipment to do any of these things, but one would not expect to find them in lines of work that require judgment, skill or a strong physique.

The cracker factory girl, is of different type, both in nationality and age, from the girl in the candy factory. Not less than 700 of all the girls in the trade are foreign born, usually Polish, but in some few cases, Italian. It is difficult to induce American girls to come to a factory unless it is built on lines of possible comfort for its employes, or unless its work is relatively pleasant. Race prejudice is strong among them, and the knowledge that the "Hunkies" are in a trade is often enough to keep native-born girls away. Yet one does find a scattering of them, perhaps a little less than one-fourth of all the girls. Both American and Polish hands are young. The work is of such a nature that girls as young as fourteen years can be used at it and, in consequence, it is a possible first employment for a child who has just secured her working papers. As such, it is to her mind and to her mother's less a permanent thing than a two or three years' interlude during which experience is gained, and a small addition made to the family wage. There are no young girls mending cans or tending cracker machines, but in the packing room and the icing room they are a factor of importance. Their work is done for the most part standing, and at high speed.

In the small factory of which I have spoken, the icing girls have no machine with which to keep pace. They work by hand in the most primitive way, placing round crackers under a hole in a board a quarter of an inch thick. With a scraper they brush icing over the hole so that the cracker is decorated in symmetrical form. On square cakes, the girls spread on the icing with their fingers, using no tools at all, but proceeding with their work in the most reflective and leisurely manner as if no such things as machines and a minimum output had ever made their appearance in the world. On the floor below, in the cracker-making department, there is the same absence of haste. There is a woman here, who for twenty years has done nothing but lift the great heavy masses of dough from the tray to the squeezer of the cracker-making ma-

chine which rolls them flat and stamps them. Two other girls sit at the machine to brush flour over the dough, and to keep the raw crackers straight on the trays. In the same room, there are fifteen girls packing. They have no conveyor, no travelling chain of boxes with which to keep pace, and although they work quickly, they work without overstrain. In the wareroom, there are girls too, doing such work as in other factories is done only by men. They fill the orders that come in, lifting the heavy boxes of crackers, and packing them in crates, lifting the great square crates on trucks and putting them on the freight elevator to be taken down to the drivers. The three girls here are pale and anaemic—every one, with an older look than the rest. They earn seven dollars a week. I talked with one of them, as she took me through the factory. She had been working there twenty years, and had never worked anywhere else. I asked her if she thought the work unhealthy, and she said "Oh, I don't know as it is, but it's tiresome. I always think I'd never work in a cracker factory again, if I had to start over. Yet the girls has it easy now. We used to work until 7.30 every night, and often till nine, without any extra pay, and for three years I got three dollars a week, but now the girls get out at 5.30, and when they work at night until nine, they get paid extra. They don't get paid by the piece either, but by the week, and they don't have to work nearly so hard. The boss that we have now is easy, and he doesn't care how much the girls get out."

In four of the factories employes are paid by the week but in the largest, where 450 girls—almost the half of all those in the trade in Pittsburgh—are employed, the piece system is in use. This is one of the chain of factories, and here an old building has been adapted for the production of a very wide line of goods. One-third of its women employes are packers, and the rest tend machines, carry trays, tend the icing trolleys, and do special work by hand. The hand cakemakers and the "specials" have insecure positions and stand in constant likelihood of being laid off through

light trade during the year, and almost the certainty of unemployment in July and August, but nevertheless there are always more applications in this department than there are positions.

On the top floor are the cracker ovens. Here the dough is mixed by huge metal blades shaped like the wings of a windmill, is cut into thin sheets and fed into the cracker-making machines. This machine stretches almost from end to end of the room. At the far end, it lifts the dough under the first roller, flattens it and stamps on it a pattern; the second roller is simply a brush roller, which shakes on flour and prevents the raw sheet from sticking to the metal, and the third marks the dough with the lines into which it is to be broken for separate crackers. At the second roller sits a girl whose duty it is to brush on flour all day long. The motion of her arm is quick and incessant, as, following the moving line of dough, she keeps the rolls dry and flour-filled. At the very end of the machine, where the crackers are slipped onto trays to be taken to the ovens, sit two other girls, one on either side. They straighten the crackers, and throw the scrappy unformed edges of the dough into a tin, from which they are fed with the fresh dough into the funnel at the other end of the room. Not six feet from the ovens is the workplace of the two girls. The oven boys, with their flannel shirts thrown open, pass back and forth in the intense heat, carrying the trays. The men say that not many of the girls can stand the work for long. These girl workers in the excessive heat, with the smell of the dough, staring at the trays which pass slowly, continuously beneath their eyes, become light-headed and ill. I saw one who had been in the place three years. She was white, with a faint look about her mouth, but the clerk said that she stood the work well. She was an Italian, and they had advanced her to five dollars a week, "for it's worth while to keep a girl who really stands the work, when once you get her."

Below stairs is the manufacture of fancy cakes and packing. There is a small trade in special orders, for pies,

crullers, wedding-cake, handled by this factory, and there is a corps of twenty girls, three-fourths of them at the subsidiary jobs of cutting up apples, washing pans and sugaring crullers, but four or five at the relatively skilled work of icing cakes by hand. These are the girls whose tenure of position is insecure because of the irregularity of orders. In the next room the packers number 200. They are piece-workers, folding the boxes for soda biscuit and other sorts of crackers at a high speed rate. These boxes are put on a narrow travelling chain which follows another conveyor that carries the baked crackers from the floor above. The girls stationed at the conveyor gather handfuls of crackers and fill the boxes as they pass rapidly by, while further down the room others wrap the sides, and still others the ends. I noticed especially one little girl with flushed cheeks but pale lips, who was folding the ends of soda cracker boxes, and putting a red stamp on each end. She earned a cent a dozen, she told me, and if she could make a hundred dozen a day, she would get ten cents bonus, altogether \$1.10. Her teeth were set, and her breath came hard like that of an overspent runner at the end of his race, yet it was only ten o'clock in the morning. Her arms moved irregularly, jerkily, as if she had set spurs to her nervous energy until it could carry her no farther. The office boy who was standing near saw me watching her and the other girls who were working like her, and said: "She does well if she makes her bonus. I was in this department a few months ago, and I seen these girls get so tired that their arms was ready to drop off at night, and yet they wouldn't make their hundred boxes."

In the icing room on the fifth floor, where the fancy crackers are made, the machinery does most of the work. A continuous chain passes from floor to ceiling across the room, then down to the floor again and across. Along the chain at intervals of a few inches, are wire trays, each with a series of spikes on which cakes are fastened, so that they come in contact with nothing,

and have an opportunity to become dry on all sides. As the chain passes, the two girls at its starting point lift off the trays and dip them, with the one motion covering all the cakes. This is done eight times, and I was told that the girls here are considered the most skilled in the factory, because they have to know how many times to dip the various kinds of cakes, but they are paid not more than six dollars a week, and most of them not more than five dollars. The icing is made and measured by a man at the other end of the floor, and there is a uniform process of dipping which the girls follow without the need of much skill or judgment of their own. In the next room, there are more girls packing, like those on the floor above, and there is a tin can room, for repairing the old tins sent back by customers. "Once", said the boy, "we used to soak the railroad thousands of dollars every year for broken glass, but now they make us crate all the cans that have glass fronts, so we don't get as much out of them as we used to." Damage to a can is usually charged to the customer. The company makes repairs, puts new glass in, repaints, and polishes, before sending it out for use again. This room is a noisy place, with the rattling of tin, and the crash of broken glass now and then, as the old pieces are thrown away and the new pieces slipped into place. Some of the girls are simply pasting on labels, and freshening rough edges, but most of them are at work on the tins themselves. All the buffing is done by boys in another part of the room.

Below this floor are more machines and more packing, and on the third floor are the bread ovens. Here only men are employed. The heat from the ovens affects not only them but the hundreds of people on the floors above, whose work, at best, is done in a high temperature and under the double pressure of a piece rate system, and pace-setting by a machine.

Two other cracker factories are built much like this one, but there is one constructed on a different plan. Here there is the same division of work between men and women, but there are more American girls than Polish. A new

hand is paid three dollars or \$3.50 at the start, according to her size, and "of course", the superintendent said, "we shouldn't think of starting a girl who was twenty years old, for instance, at less than \$4." The packing and icing girls are advanced to five dollars and sometimes six dollars, and the head girl earns seven.

On the sixth floor of the building are the ovens and the mixing department. There is a high ceiling with windows on three sides and, even in the absence of forced ventilation, good circulation of air. The ovens are of the most recent make and the heat given off is less than that in the baking rooms elsewhere. The sweep of a breeze from window to window makes work in this room tolerable even to the people nearest the ovens. The height of the ceilings protects the workers on the lower floor from the heat, so that directly below it is scarcely noticeable, and from this floor down it does not affect the temperature of the building at all.

In the icing department of the fifth floor about twenty girls are employed. Some of them are at the icing trolleys and there are others, marshmallow girls, who squeeze the liquid marshmallow out of cheesecloth bags. Still others sprinkle grated nuts on the marshmallow cakes as they pass. The girls in this department are shifted frequently from one sort of work to another, but the marshmallow girls are ordinarily kept at the one job, for it takes at least a week to learn and sometimes a month or two. At the other end of the trolley there are girls to remove the cakes and pack them away in tins.

The cracker packing is on the fourth floor. From the ovens the trays of crackers pass slowly on a conveyor through the two floors, and at the point where the conveyor dips into the packing room to move horizontally across it, electric fans are set so that the crackers will be thoroughly cooled by the time they reach the girls. This has the two-fold effect of keeping the crackers in better condition after they are packed and of making the work of the packers far less disagreeable. Each girl is supposed

to lift from the passing trays a certain portion of the crackers, so that by the time the conveyor has passed a given number of girls it will be entirely empty. Sometimes it takes six months before a new girl has learned how to pack the different styles of crackers and how to manage her share of the conveyor. There is a second conveyor in this room, which carries the filled boxes to the girls who wrap and label them. When the wrapper has covered a box she replaces it on the conveyor which carries it away to the shelves to be stacked.

Below the packing room there are two floors of storerooms and offices and on the first floor, which is really a basement, a tin can room where cans are labelled, stamped and freshened.

These three factories might be taken as three broad types of different phases of the development of the industry. The other two are also typical but less markedly so, and with slighter deviation from the phase represented by the second factory of which I spoke. Before discussing any more in detail the significance of these types of construction, a word or two further may be said about the wages, hours, and general distribution of work among the women employees.

As elsewhere, a ten hour day is customary. There is little seasonal overtime, but occasionally there may be night work to fill a rush order or to get out work when there is unusual demand. The mother of one small girl told me indignantly how her daughter had to work three nights a week overtime during the month of July without any time off for supper, and if she worked until just nine she would get twenty-five cents extra, but if she stopped a few minutes before nine she would not get any extra pay at all. As a rule, trade declines as summer wears on, for while people can get fresh fruits their appetite for sweet cakes fails. But for soda wafers and other crackers of the same order the season of picnics makes an unflagging demand, and packers the year round are steadily employed. The icing girls are sometimes kept on short time for a period of two months and the girls on special work are likely to be laid off alto-

gether, but aside from this the trade is steady.

In one or two cases I have already mentioned the wages paid. There is no apparent distinction between departments, but a general flat rate of minimum, advanced, and maximum pay. For instance, one firm starts all new hands at \$3.50, and after a little advances them toward five dollars. Fifty of its 300 girls are considered skilled enough to be making the maximum pay, which is \$5.50. No one, except a forewoman or two at eight dollars, earns more than this. This case is representative of the rest. The highest pay of any of the regular hands is seven dollars, and 700 of the 900 girls are earning weekly sums of from four, or in most cases, five dollars to six. They are without opportunity for advancement or for developing any quality except speed.

The following table shows the distribution of work among women employees in the five factories:

Packing	Icing	Tin can room	Cracker making machines	Order room	Specials
1. 15	4	—	3	3	—
2. 40	6	6	1	—	—
3. 70	18	8	2	2	—
4. 300	50	50	30	—	20
5. 245	16	30	2	5	2
670	94	94	38	10	22

As far as the number of employees is concerned, packing is the important process in a cracker factory. The bulk of the women is working at the traveling conveyors, rapidly lifting the hot crackers and filling box after box to be shipped fresh from the ovens. The icing girls speak of being sticky and smeared, but most of their work is done while sitting and at a relatively even pace under more pleasant conditions than those of the packers. The girls at the cracker machines are few in number, altogether only thirty-eight, but deserve prominent mention because they are to so large an extent arms of the machine. The ten hours that they spend close to the intolerable heat of the ovens is at work which demands neither judgment, skill, nor speed. A lathe that bores in oil is supplied with the oil mechanically. If women were not available

for work at the cracker machines, the question might be raised whether the flour for the brush roller might not be supplied mechanically. There are self-feeding machines and machines which adjust themselves to the waste at the sides. If women were not available for the work at the cracker machines, the question might be raised whether the scraps of dough might not be removed mechanically and mechanically carried to the funnel at the other end of the room. That women are doing this work in the absence of such devices, indicates in this department a need for further adjustment and for a more complete use to be made of the machines.

To return to the types of factories. It is the old factory with the limited machine equipment, where women are doing heavy lifting in the order room and at the ovens. It is here, too, that the icing of cakes is carelessly done in an unsanitary way, and it is here that one gets the impression of leisure. The vol-

ume of trade is small, the manager is easy-going and makes little effort to increase it. There may be some slight advantage to the employees in this way, but though the packers are not working at high speed they are working in the same room with the baking ovens in a deadly heat that is never stirred nor lifted by a breeze.

The old building which the largest of the factories has adapted, is crowded with machines and with workers, for maximum returns from available space. When an oven was needed an oven was put in wherever there was room, without reference to the number of employees working above it and without regard for possible devices for deflecting some of the heat from the upper floors. When a new department was needed, a new department was introduced—where there was room. The unvarying emphasis has been on the

saving of space. There has been a meager compliance with the orders of the factory inspection department in the erection of fire-escapes and in some other primary things which the law demands. Beyond this there is no standard save one of output. This costly economy by which 450 women and no less than 200 of the men, are working on the floors above the bread ovens, standing on scorching boards relieved by no sweep of air between the low walls, by no system of forced ventilation to carry off the heat from above or below,—this costly economy is perhaps in part a cause of the instability of the women workers; it is certainly a cause both in men and in women, of lowered vitality, and of resultant social unfitness.

That a different building plan is possible is evidenced by the third factory. In this case all the ovens are on the top floor. Even on this

trades where there are other conditions it is far from sufficient. In the packing room of a candy factory one might be able to do with less air than in the packing room of a cracker factory. If in either case one had not enough air to conserve health, the firm responsible would be failing in the intent though not in the letter of the law. In this third factory a standard is set in observing the intent of the law. Where a standard is worked out commercially, where it is proven practicable, that business economy is short-sighted which does not follow it, that social economy is short-sighted which does not make it a part of its code of ethics or of law.

How far the other Pittsburgh factories are at variance with this standard may be made clearer by this schedule which gives the arrangement of departments. I have put first the factory which shows the best building plan.

<i>Standard</i> (3)	(1)	(2)	(4)	(5)
Floors				
7. _____	_____	_____		
6. <i>cracker ovens</i>	_____	_____	<i>cracker ovens</i>	_____
5. icing dept.	_____	packing	packing; fancy cakes	_____
4. packing	(candy)	ovens	icing dept.	packing
3. store rooms	icing	packing	packing	{ mixing packing
2. store rooms; offices	ovens	(candy)	{ <i>cracker ovens</i> <i>bread ovens</i>	ovens
1. tin can room	offices	offices	warerooms	{ icing dept. offices
			offices	tin can room

floor the temperature is kept down by the breeze that comes through the large, open windows, and on the floors below relative comfort is possible. The artificial cooling of the crackers results both to the advantage of the firm commercially and to the increased comfort of the packing girls. The building of the factory on large lines, with wide rooms and many windows, with high ceilings, ample space between floors, seems a partial recognition of the fact that a rule adequate for factories in one line of industry is not of necessity adequate for factories in all lines of industry, that the requirement of a minimum number of cubic feet of air space per person is not a rule framed without intent or ultimate purpose, but that the intent of it is health, and that whereas a given amount of air space in one trade may be sufficient, in other

The schedule does not show that in these four other factories the ceilings are low and the buildings overcrowded; that a few windows are made to do duty for a large room and that forced ventilation is not provided. But the schedule does show that, in addition to this failure toward the intent of the law which is the conservation of health among the workers, there is a failure on the part of four out of these five factories to work toward the standard, though not expressed in law, which is socially essential. The healthful arrangement of departments with reference to each other is a matter as important as fire-escapes. Economy of space at the cost of the health of the employes is as worthy of civic condemnation as the faulty building construction which results in the destruction of life.

Industrial Diseases

With Special Reference to the Trades in Which Women are Employed

Alice Hamilton, M. D.

Hull House

As long ago as the first half century after Christ, the Latin writer, Pliny, spoke of certain diseases as peculiarly the diseases of slaves. These were lead and quick-silver poisoning, and the consumption of pottery workers and textile workers. In the nineteen centuries which have elapsed since then we have abolished slavery but we still have Pliny's diseases of slaves, only now we call them "industrial diseases." Quick-silver poisoning is a negligible factor but lead poisoning is still with us and consumption still claims at least twice as many victims from the wage-earning class as from the professional class, and in some trades the proportion is higher than this. And to Pliny's list we have added a goodly number of quite new industrial diseases because we have so many new industries and almost every one is attended with risk to the health of the people engaged in it. It is not simply as a form, that physicians in dispensaries and hospital work ask about the occupation of the sick person, it is because in the answer often lies the clew to the particular disorder.

Although diseases of industry have been recognized for so long, yet it is only recently that a systematic study of them has been made. I have had to draw on the statistics of Great Britain and Europe for information on the subject, as there is so little available in our own country where we are still too much absorbed in the industrial battle to stop and take stock of the killed and wounded. I shall not speak of the terrible mortality from industrial accidents, but shall confine myself to the diseases caused by various trades, and in speaking of these trades, I shall divide them into those which are in their very nature dangerous, and those which are not necessarily so, but which are made so by the bad conditions under which they are habitually carried on.

The intrinsically dangerous trades are,

in the first place, those which involve the use of poisonous substances. Foremost among these should stand the lead trades, not because lead is the most powerful of the poisons, for it is not, but because it enters into the manufacture of so many articles. A French writer has estimated that lead is used in 111 different industries and the number of people engaged in handling this metal increases as the use of electricity increases, for lead is used in the manufacture of many electrical appliances.

In England, France, Germany, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium and the Scandinavian countries, the lead trades are regarded as very dangerous and are hedged around with elaborate restrictions. Employers are obliged to use machinery whenever possible and to guard against the absorption of lead in those processes where it must be handled. In America we have not taken enough interest in the subject to find out if we have any lead poisoning among our workers. I am told that machinery is used in lead industries in America much more generally than in the older countries, which would lessen the danger very much. This is said to be true especially of the white lead factories. It would seem, however, very improbable that all American employers would voluntarily take the precautions which stringent legislation has had to force upon the foreign employers, especially as these laws were founded upon the recommendations of a medical commission and contain features which would not occur to non-medical people.

The most important of the lead industries are the manufacture and use of paint, making and setting type, glazing pottery, making yellow dyes, tinware and storage batteries. Lead is usually absorbed from the mouth and the best precaution against poisoning is never to eat without first rinsing out the mouth, and

washing the hands. Chronic lead poisoning causes a form of paralysis of the muscles of the arm, known as "wrist drop", recurring attacks of violent colic, gradually increasing anaemia, nervousness, constant headache and finally a hardening of the arteries which produces degeneration of the kidneys and heart, and a tendency to apoplexy. There is an acute form to which young women are especially liable, and which affects the nervous system, showing itself in attacks of nervous excitement or hysteria. It may end in blindness or insanity or death.

Women are employed in many of the lead industries and they are much more susceptible to this form of poisoning than men are, so much so that in England their employment in the more dangerous processes is absolutely prohibited. Before the enactment of that law, the lead industry in Newcastle had caused ninety-four cases of lead poisoning among women as against forty-one among men, the two sexes being employed in about the same numbers. In two years' time twenty-two women and only one man died of lead poisoning.

Arsenic is another poison used in industry, but it is far less important now, for its place is being taken by the aniline dyes. It is said, however, to be still employed in the coloring of textiles, carpets, linoleum, wall-paper, playing cards, artificial flowers, and colored rubber balls and toys. Artificial flower making is supposed to be especially dangerous as the dye is used dry and dusted over the flowers. Like lead, arsenic is absorbed from the air or carried by the fingers to the mouth. Arsenical poisoning is slow and chronic, causing inflammation of the eye and nose, dry sore throat, headache and digestive disturbances. It is seldom fatal.

Phosphorus has for a long time been looked upon with horror as a deadly poison, but it does not cause nearly as much disease as lead, for its use is practically restricted to the match industry. There are two kinds of phosphorus used in industry, the red, which is non-poisonous and which is used in making safety matches, and the white or yellow, used in

the ordinary lucifer match. This is an extremely poisonous substance, the fumes of which cause decay of the teeth extending to the jaw-bone. The so-called "phossy-jaw" which used to be common enough in the old countries, was a condition of necrosis and suppuration of the lower jaw resulting in the loss of portions of the bone. This condition is rarely seen now in any country and in America it is said to be unknown.

The white phosphorus industry is strictly controlled in England and on the continent. Denmark has prohibited its use altogether. France took over the manufacture of matches as a government monopoly, and then found that she had to pay such large sums in compensations to phosphorus-poisoned work-people, that she gave up the use of white phosphorus and substituted a non-poisonous salt, the sesquisulphide, which can be used for the making of ordinary matches. Dangerous as is the use of white phosphorus, a match factory can be made almost entirely safe if strict attention is paid to ventilation and cleanliness.

The rubber industry is very large and important, employing hundreds of women. The dangers in this industry come from two substances, naphtha and carbon bisulphide. The first is not fatally poisonous. It causes ill effects chiefly by the loss of appetite and the loathing for food which girls especially experience. In factories where the naphtha is kept uncovered, the air becomes filled with the vapor which is very irritating. It is impossible to help tasting it in the food eaten, and the distaste for food, and the constant headache, cause anaemia and malnutrition. But carbon bisulphide, which is used in vulcanizing the rubber, is much more dangerous. There are several safe ways of combining sulphur with rubber, and they are in use in some factories, but carbon-bisulphide cannot be made safe. This is another poison to which young women are especially susceptible. It acts very much like alcohol, causing excitability, sleeplessness, and nervousness, followed by lassitude and headache which is relieved only by another dose of the poisonous vapor, until the effect culminates in complete

nervous break-down, in neuritis leading to paralysis, or in gradual mental deterioration. In England it has been decided that nobody should work for more than five hours a day in the carbon bisulphide rooms and the time should be divided into two widely separated shifts.

Leaving the poisons, the most important of the really dangerous trades are the dust producing ones. If people work in dust laden air their lungs will suffer from it sooner or later, and the quickness or severity of the disease will be in proportion to the irritating nature of the dust. Textile works are great producers of lung troubles, the dust of linen being most irritating, of wool next, and of cotton least. Dye works are also dusty, so are potteries. The dust acts generally in one of two ways. The swelling of the lining of the bronchial tubes, and the spasmodic efforts to cough, may cause asthma, or the dust may set up a chronic inflammation which prepares the soil for tuberculous infection. In England the deaths from consumption among spinners and carders was almost double that of an ordinary country community, and among the linen workers no less than three-fifths were said to die of lung disease, but as a result of strict laws regulating dampness and fluff in textile works, the death rate from tuberculosis dropped from forty in 10,000 of population to twenty-one, while the general death rate throughout England fell only from thirty-six to twenty-five.

Pottery work is dangerous in two ways. It is a dusty and therefore a consumption producing trade the dust being composed of sharp particles, and it is one in which lead is used and, therefore, it exposes the workers to lead poisoning. In the great English potteries, among the women who brush and polish the fired pottery, cases of consumption sometimes develop after two months' work. These workers rarely live to be over forty-five years, and more than twice as many die of tuberculosis as among the working population in general. The same thing is true in dye works, especially those in which lead chromate or potassium chromate dyes are used, for here too we

have the double effect of dust and of the poison contained in the dust.

Other trades are dangerous because of the excessive dampness with which is often combined excessive heat. Laundries, jam factories, canning works of all kinds, have the air saturated with moisture all the time. Women work in the thinnest of clothing because of the heat, they are soaking wet, their hair and feet wet, the air they breathe hot, and especially in laundries, very foul. They go out weakened from excessive perspiration into the cold air. Rheumatism, heart disease, bronchitis, and tuberculosis are the special diseases of women in laundries, canneries, and jam factories. Unfortunately these are just the trades which are apt to have long and exhausting hours of work for their women employees.

There are many industries in which women are engaged, which are not in themselves dangerous, but become so because they are habitually carried on under unhealthful conditions which usually could perfectly well be done away with. There is nothing deleterious in tailoring or cigar making, nor is there anything in the sewing trades, or in the making of artificial flowers, of bread, cake, and crackers, or in the occupation of saleswomen and cash girls, which is unhealthful, yet these are all trades that in most instances are carried on so badly that the women's health is broken down. Long hours, artificial light, dusty and dirty rooms, over-crowding, are not essential to any industry, but they are very common features of many.

It is hardly possible to exaggerate the bad effects of long hours of work on women's health, especially if the work must be done standing. Women are not physically adapted to work which requires great endurance—and they suffer far more than men from the strain of standing on their feet for many hours. Any physician will agree to the statement that an eight hour day on her feet is more than enough for a woman's strength, yet we all know that a ten hour day is considered too short in many industries, and that women are kept at

hard labor for more than twelve hours in some laundries, canneries, etc.

The introduction of machinery has proved a doubtful blessing in some ways. I have heard women say that sewing or weaving, with the old foot-power looms and sewing machines, was less exhausting than feeding the new power looms and machines. The nervous strain incident to watching the machinery, and keeping up with its speed, breaks down a woman more than does slower although more arduous work. In all these trades it must be remembered that mere bodily fatigue, when it becomes chronic, leads to inevitable sickness. Sleeplessness, loss of appetite, a distaste for solid food and a craving for coffee, tea, or other stimulants, constant headache and back-ache, pelvic disorders, all these follow as results of days spent in labor which is not in itself dangerous, but which is pursued each day to the point of exhaustion.

The surroundings under which the work is carried on may be responsible for disease. An inquiry was made into the history of 200 consumptive working people in Berlin. In 189 the source of infection could be traced. Seventy-five had caught it probably in their work places, as they had all worked for long periods in close proximity to consumptive fellow-workmen. Those working in closed rooms were of course the most numerous. Over-crowding is a most important factor, for scientists have proved that not only is the dust from the floors on which consumptives have expectorated dangerous, but the droplets which are expelled in ordinary coughing, fly for a distance of ten feet or more, and contaminate the air around the consumptive.

A word must be said as to married women in industry. The entrance into the industrial world of women who are actual or prospective mothers, must be looked at from the point of view both of the mother herself and of the children. For the woman herself, certain trades are especially dangerous. The lifting of heavy weights, the use of foot power machines or any work which involves excessive muscular effort, may result in injury to the woman's organs and in the

loss of the child if she is pregnant. Among the poisonous trades those using lead are the most dangerous, for lead is a most potent producer of abortion, and it is very rare that a woman lead worker bears a healthy child at term.

In Holland, Belgium, Austria and Switzerland, women may not work in a factory for four weeks after confinement. Germany makes it six weeks, unless the woman is strong. This is done as much for the sake of the child as of the woman, and in Spain there is a very merciful provision for mothers that they shall have an hour during the working day at full pay, half an hour in the morning and half in the afternoon. Sanitarians often refer to the singular and interesting effect upon infant mortality produced by two great crises which threw large numbers of women out of work. During the siege of Paris and during the Lancashire famine, there was no factory work. There was terrible privation among the poor, yet the infant mortality rate fell off most strikingly, in Paris as much as forty per cent, simply because the mothers were obliged to stay at home and nurse their babies. Careful statistics collected in England show that it is most deleterious to the health of the nation for married women to work in factories. A poorer way of living with the mother at home causes fewer deaths among infants than better living with the mother working out. In England from forty to fifty-six per cent of the babies born to factory mothers die in infancy.

Now if all the evils of which I have spoken were inevitable there would be no use talking about them, but inasmuch as every civilized country has proved that industry can be carried on without the sacrifice of life and health, it behooves us at least to discuss the question and not to resign ourselves to ills that are preventable. I suppose it is a relic of the youthful daring pioneer spirit, which achieved such brilliant things in the early days of our country, that makes us as an industrial nation reckless of health and life and impatient of the control of law. But while it may be an admirable thing to be reckless of danger for oneself, there is nothing admirable in al-

lowing ignorant and helpless people to incur risks which they either do not realize, or which they are compelled to face. For in all this question of dangerous trades, we must remember that we are dealing with a class which is not really free, and which is compelled to a great extent to follow certain trades, and to work in certain places, and has very little choice. When you really consider it, how much can a working woman do to control the conditions under which she works? If you tell a girl in a tailor shop that there is a consumptive working in the same room with her, that she runs

great risk of illness unless she finds a clean, light, well-ventilated shop with no tuberculous infection, she will tell you that she knows no other trade, that her wages are essential to her family, that she dare not leave that shop for fear of not finding another and that anyway they are all much the same and she must take her chances. It is not true that the wage earner is a free agent. For an employer to say to his work-people, "If you don't like the job, get out," may in many instances be like a captain at sea saying to his sailors, "If you don't like the ship, get overboard."

A Day's Work Making Gloves

Agnes Nestor

Glovemakers' Union, Chicago

The whistle blows at 7 A. M. but the piece workers have until 7.30 to come in to work. The penalty for coming late (after 7.30 A. M.) is the loss of a half day as the girls cannot then report to work until noon. This rule is enforced to induce the girls to come early but it often works a hardship on them when they are unavoidably delayed on account of the cars, etc. Stormy weather is the only excuse.

All the work in the sewing department is piece work so the wages depend upon the speed of the operator. The gloves are made by the dozen and each class of operators has a particular part of them to make. After they are cut they go to the silker, who does the fancy stitching on the backs; then to the closer, who sews in the thumbs and joins the pieces to the palms to form the backs; they then go to several operators each of whom does a small part of the banding; then the gloves come back to the closer to be closed around the fingers. This finishes most of the bandtop gloves but the gauntlets have to go to the binder or hemmer who finishes the tops. Nearly all of the gloves are finished on the wrong side and have to go to another department to be turned and layed off on a heated iron form; this is the finishing process. This is the making of the heavy working and driving gloves.

A few years ago most of the gloves were made throughout by one operator, but by degrees the manufacturers have divided the work into sections until now the closers and girls making the finer driving and fancy gauntlets are the only girls who really have a trade to learn. The other work is very straight and requires more speed than skill.

It is only through our union that we have been able to have the closing work made throughout by the one operator. The employers claim that their object in wanting to have this work done in sections is to make it easier for girls to learn and to make possible a better system in giving out the work. They offered to divide the total price proportionally among the different operators so that there would be no reduction in this arrangement. There was always some reduction in the other sectional work; for instance, a girl received thirty-three cents a dozen for doing all the banding on a certain style of glove. By having this work made in sections and with improved machinery the total price is seventeen cents, necessarily involving a reduction in some sections. We believe we are justified in refusing to have our "closing" work made in sections, if for no other reason than that one part of the "closing" work is very heavy and hard, and when a girl does

it all day she is completely tired out, while the putting in thumbs and backing is much lighter and easier work which it is a sort of a rest to do part of the day. So when it is a question of our strength to us and not dollars or cents to the employer, so he claims, then why should we not insist on making our gloves throughout. I am not bringing in the question of breaking up our trade or the monotony and other disagreeable features of section work. One employer even offered us an increased price on the harder part of the work to induce us to accept his system, but even this we refused. You see there is a human as well as a financial question involved in this for us and I think the human is the greater of the two.

It is a curious sight to go through a factory and see in spaces between the windows and on the posts at certain distances apart, eighty-five alarm clocks. The clocks are bought as the result of a collection, which means that each girl puts in five or ten cents.

I have heard and read criticisms of the men who work watching the clock, ready to drop their tools on the minute of quitting time, but the reason our girls buy and watch the clocks is not to see how soon they can quit work, but to see that they do not lose time. It is easy to lose a few minutes and not notice it until the end of the day when we count up our work and pay. Every girl knows just how long it takes her to make any part of the glove. We figure that we can make a pair in a certain number of minutes so we watch the clock to see that we will come out on time with our dozen.

When we begin our day's work we never know what our day's pay will be. We have to figure to make up for time we lose. Although it is not our fault it is at our expense. For instance: a dozen gloves may be cut from very heavy leather making it difficult to sew; or perhaps when we go to the desk for work we may have to stand waiting in line ten to twenty minutes; or the belt of our machine may break and we may have to walk around the factory, two or three times before we find the belt boy who, perhaps, is hidden under a table fixing a

belt, and then we have to wait our turn, or we go to another desk to get our supplies such as needles, thread, welt, etc. But what we dread most of all is the machine breaking down as we do not know how long it will take to repair it. For this work the machinist takes our name and again we have to wait our turn. The foreman is very willing to allow us to use another machine, but when a girl is accustomed to her own machine it is not an easy matter to sew on any other. For each kind of leather and style of glove we use a different color and number of thread and size needle; each of those require a certain tension so that in changing the thread, needles and machine for the various kinds of work again time is taken, our time. Each glove has to be stamped with the girl's number so that a glove can always be traced back to the maker and all "busters" brought to her to repair.

I remember a certain style of glove of which I found I could make a dozen in one hour and a half. There happened to be a large order for this work going through, so that I had a great amount of it. At the end of the day, nine and a half hours, I found that I had only five dozens made. The next day I watched the clock very close to see where the two hours went the day before. I finished each dozen on "scheduled time" but at the end of this day I found I still had only my five dozens made. I tried this every day for a week, each day trying to work harder, only with the same result and to find myself completely tired out.

A great many employers give as their reason for preferring the piece work system and establishing it as much as possible, that they are only paying for the work they receive and have more work turned out in a day. This no doubt is true but is too often at the expense of the girl. For she pays not only the loss of time but the loss of health too. I am one of the many who are very much against this system for I have seen too many awful results from it. We have a certain amount of strength and energy and if this is to be used up the first few years at the trade what is to become of the workers after that? This system,

moreover, encourages a girl to do more than her physical strength will allow her to do continuously. Piece work is worry as well as work.

When I started in the trade and saw the girls working at that dreadful pace every minute, I wondered how they could keep up the speed. But it is not until you become one of them that you can understand. The younger girls are usually very anxious to operate a machine. I remember the first day that I sewed, making the heavy linings. The foreman came to me late in the day and asked how I liked the work. "Oh," I said, "I could never get tired sewing on this machine." But he had seen too many girls "get tired," so he said "Remember those words a few years from now if you stay," and I have.

At half-past nine the whistle blows again and we have five minutes for a light lunch. This time we have to make up so we work until 5.35 P. M. At noon we have only one-half hour, which means that the girls have to bring a cold lunch. The firm heats a large boiler of water so the girls can make tea or coffee. While one half an hour seems a short time for lunch still a great many girls take ten or fifteen minutes of this to trim their gloves or whatever work they can do while the power is shut down. The girls all eat at their places, two or three grouping together. I believe a

lunch-room should be provided where we could eat without the sight of gloves and the smell of leather.

There is a big army of foremen, forewomen, and others employed by the various manufacturers just to study and plan how they can save a few cents here and there for the firm. Their methods of saving too often result in a "cut" here and there. As these "cuts" continue to come one after another, the girls must work faster and faster to make up for them, until they have to give up, and then there are other girls ready to take their places in the race. They all have to compete with the "pacemaker." There is only one way of resisting this and that is through the united efforts of the workers in their trade union.

Employers frequently complain about the big expense of "breaking in so much help." If they spent some of this money to make the factory conditions better it would not be necessary to break in so many workers. I believe it would pay them in the end.

One of the valuable features of our trade union is that the workers have an opportunity to meet their employer. It is only by representatives of both employers and employed sitting around the table and talking matters over that they can both recognize and understand each other's rights and interests.

Play and Playground¹

Mari Ruef Hofer

The playground and provision for public recreation as a necessary evidence of civilization is very clearly establishing itself in the American mind. Like all movements emanating from altruistic impulse and carried forward by enthusiasts the playground must in the end be tested by the common sense and morale of its own idea.

From the president to the babe in arms our times are animated with peculiar zeal. The playground, viewed as a public forum in which to test the efficiency of

the oncoming young citizen is an interesting study in modern education.

Starting as a sort of out of doors chapter of the vacation school it has passed rapidly through many phases of evolution, from a largely pedagogical "schoolroom conclusion," to that of a frankly acknowledged childhood necessity. Thus there have been experiments with playgrounds in all kinds of places and spaces, basement, roof gardens and parks; with apparatus and without; with free play, directed play and no play at all; with trained supervisor and untrained worker. We have passed through the

¹The photographs accompanying this article were taken at the play festival held in connection with the Summer School of the South in Knoxville, Tenn.



stages of playing the few games "we just happened to know"—yea verily and drawing salaries for the same—to that of seriously and conscientiously studying and learning to play. We have passed from the polite expedient of hiring the charming young woman who needed some occupation and a little money for the summer months, to the full fledged salary and the expert worker. We have ranged from the extremes of athletics and gymnastics and field sports to the aesthetics of folk dancing. We have tried every new idea singly or collectively as it has appeared. We have yet to determine what a normal playground is and for the most part, what normal play is. The question is whether under abnormal conditions training must not to a large extent take the place of play.

In the first place the large city where the need of the playground is greatest, is an abnormal source from which to draw universal conclusions for playgrounds and children's play for the entire country. The congested and gregarious conditions of a large city, the close crowding against the child of trade life must turn his instincts awry and

change even innocent child play into gambling. The very broad study of play in all its relations to the child and to life, especially that emanating from the child himself, the adjustment of the playground idea to public use in city and country and small town must be the interesting next step in its progress.

The premise, "all children play, hence children do not need to be taught to play," does not hold good in practical experience. The idle repetitions of desultory play or the oftentimes innocently vicious tendency of the play of children left too much to themselves, may be seen on all sides. Observe but for a day the play of the children upon your street to convince yourself. At best it is a racing to and fro with things on wheels.

This brings us to the as yet rare product, the efficient playground leader, the all-round sympathetic man or woman who develops by play as well as develops play. This person is not so much an outward controlling force as he is guide and referee—the one to provide fresh stimulus to lagging endeavor and adventure. He is in turn the good fellow, the playmate, the friend or leader, as the

child's need may be. He must steer the idle or vicious, between dead calm and troubled waters into quiet seas of helpful, purposeful play.

The supposition that child needs and demands produce the playground is somewhat discounted when we behold the mechanical wonder of the well equipped city playground. One is frankly lead to ask, "is the child made for the playground or the playground for the child?" The children play happily and intensely any and everywhere, in the gutter and under the wheels of traffic as in sheltered home or shady park. They play with anything and hourly coin fresh material for the execution of play. Strings, sticks, blocks, rags, with these they build, devise, dramatize to their heart's content. The question asks itself, is so much formal and mechanical device necessary in the playground to induce the children to play? Is it not rather a hindrance than a help to real play to be given so many things to play with? Shall we substitute apparatus for child initiative and impulse? Also is not the impulse to play frequently lost in its translation to the playground? Joseph Lee's suggestion of a playground wherever there are children, offers food for thought. A further hint

is drawn from a report of the neighborhood association playground committee, that the hours and purpose of the playground be adjusted to the needs of the children.

Physical training as an abstract science has had its day. In the relating of all training to life may be said to consist the entire stir and fuss of the new education. It was the working over of the daily experiences into dramatic form which produced our inheritance of folk play. That which we play to-day was the real of yesterday. Nor is this idea confined to singing, game and rhyme. All games of any significance by name as well as by their content show this relationship. From a game of chess to town ball, it is a moving of kings and queens, knights and pawns, a taking of kingdoms, encroachment upon or retreating from demesne and territory. All games are stories. Why strip them of that significance any more than we would Shakespeare of his glory of language and thought and present him merely in pantomime with our legs?

In a mild way we commit the same sin when we strip folk games and dances of their clothing of word and thought and make mere dancing exercises of them. These serve us well for rhythm



and device and recreation in physical training. Why not let them serve us better for culture's sake by passing on their historical settings and meanings to the children. To be sure a little more and better information on our part will be necessary. Also it would mean to take the time to instruct the children in these things. To this end however, that fewer games would be taught, and those taught, with more intelligence and insight. This will insure a degree of respect on the part of the child for what he is doing. There is no doubt that the invasion of folk-play into the field of physical training has helped to break down race and national prejudice more than many protocols of the powers. In the exchange of play we learn to esteem the inherent values of peoples and their countries, and a more appreciative judgment must result. There is nothing the American youth needs more than this, nor does he have to travel abroad to learn it.

The culture theories of education are nowhere better illustrated than in the common plays of children. Cat and mouse, fox and geese, hare and hounds, hide and seek, Tommy Tiddler's ground, sheep fold and hundreds of like instances tell us the story of human evolution. The teacher should study and provide for the children educational series of these natural games involving first principles of physical development such as running, jumping, hopping, throwing, pulling, turning, twisting, etc. Ball games are one long history of human throwing, batting, catching, dodging, running and attaining. Something of this evolution should be followed with children before arriving at its abstract statement, scientific baseball. The playground should be a place of process and evolution as well as of diversion and entertainment. A careful study of natural plays and their value would provide a pretty good theory of physical training and give the children plenty of fun besides.

The continual outbreaking into primitive situations and the demand for pioneer experiences on the part of boys, point out strongly one phase of play and make believe which should be encouraged in playground work. Boys play at "wild

man," "strange lands" and their adventures and cave-life, for weeks at a stretch secretly and under most doubtful and harmful conditions. In the same way by enacting bits of reading or school information a lively boy will be Robinson Crusoe from the top of a shed for a raft and an old rubber boot for the goat. Again as Washington he will general his army from the area steps into his dirty scrap of a back yard. Or you will find him busy with the fortunes of the recent Russian war with what inspiration he can gather from the garbage boxes and refuse of the alley. With the same spirit will he react the latest newspaper horror or murder. An old dry goods box, a hole in the wall, a hair breadth escape from a window all enveloped in a proper degree of mystery is more fascinating to him than all the patent, ready-made playgrounds made for his special delectation. The Indian, Eskimo, Wild West experiences, offer in a nut shell what the healthy boy surrepticiously plays when left to himself. Let the play leader take up these rudimentary impulses in earnest and help them to develop them, even to the giving of a *bona fide* cow boy or wild west show. Every play ground should have a tent, a fort, a cave, a tunnel, a mysterious corner suggestive of the strange and unusual. A few loads of dirt and sod, a few boards and stones and a few lively boys will do the rest. A ready made playground can be but half a playground to a boy of initiative and spirit.

There is no reason why the subject matter element should not enter somewhat into playground work. Its entire mission is not to keep up a frenzy of movement and excited, noisy, play. What a boon to children of starved imagination to work out a plot. What a change from the monotony of purely physical training. Greek games, tournaments of the middle ages or episodes of the guilds and craftsman of a century ago give a pretty complete review of the whole history of athletics and physical training, showing the evolution even to the present day games.

The story of Greek games reveals the Pentathlon, five athletes contesting five athletic feats, leaping, running, discus

and javelin throwing and wrestling in turn. The victor having passed through all five successfully winning out in the end. You are repaid if only to get a fresh meaning of the word. Add costume and a crown for the victor and you get a breath of the air of Olympus. Likewise Norse lore and literature will provide you Valhalla for a Stadium with the sports of Hoder Loki and the gods for your entertainment, Robin Hood, and his merry men, John Little John, the Tinker and the Friar will furnish an occasion of good English humor as well as good English bouts at stave wrestling and leaping, archery contests and the like. This material will only be sentimental in the hands of a sentimentalist.

Indeed it is as good in these work-a-day times of ours, while playing Greek to feel Greek, to get the happy-go-lucky lilt of an Irish jig, to step the minuet like a Frenchman, as it is to shout the good American shout when our colors win. To be sure putting on a toga will not make a Roman any more than Greek peplum will make a Greek, as our meager muscular development attests when we try it. But here is the opportunity for intellectualizing play if one may be permitted the term, and with malice prepense not only bring back the spirit but encourage some of the brain and brawn of those heroic days into our softer times. A revival of Olympic games for American youth could best be developed upon some such basis of child play.

In the meantime, with a broader outlook and the necessity of co-operation, self discipline takes the place of license and coercion. The choicest parts will be freely allotted to the best man. Under cover of the subject the teacher may happily and easily, yet strenuously, work to any end of physical training desired. The necessity of not amusing children but making them to some degree earn their play appeals to the teacher of experience.

Group work bringing together the boys of right ages will easily gather around a subject a set of eager workers. At a hint they will provide and make all accoutrements necessary for the illus-

tration of a subject, bows, arrows, shields, lances, staves. They become a gang of constructors and helpers instead of destroyers.

In this connection, it is but fair to say that the material for playground story telling is not yet developed. Here is a field for translating the inspired literature on athletic subjects into aspired action. All the heroic lore and history with which our literature teems should be opened into the playground. Let us revive for the children of to-day the athletic drama of the past. Instead of providing children's theatres for youthful players to beat out their hearts against the foot lights in assumed emotion, let them meet and dare and act the heroic deeds of old in the practical arena of the present.

An objective point, a goal, is a psychological necessity of the mind. The festival may be the climax or full flowering of any series of plays or period of playground work. To train for spirit and execution towards the given end of public performances should be an investment in the bank of future success. To be given a festival or story to work out would from the start involve a plan, make for concentration of efforts, necessitate co-operation, subordinate exercise to idea, make group work and grading possible, bring forward the timid and subdue the bold. A festival means a consideration of time, place, history, country, costume, color, characteristic situation and gesture. A review of the months or seasons gives occasion for much interesting and fundamental knowledge which is denied to even the children who live in the country. Especially delightful are the occasions of the harvest, mid-winter and springtime if developed in connection with the costumes of different countries.

A congress of the trades would reveal the history of the guilds and crafts interpreting in games, pantomime and dancing much of the lost lore of the industrial life of the past as well as inspiring present day themes. The festival may thus again become the expression of the social forces of to-day as it was in the days gone by.

Tuberculosis in Porto Rico

Edith
Elmer
Wood



Previous to the organization of the Anti-Tuberculosis League of Porto Rico, an effort had been made to fight tuberculosis on the island through a society composed exclusively of physicians, but the association was short-lived.

Among the nearly five hundred members of the league are many representatives of the medical profession, but they are side by side with society women, clergymen, lawyers, editors, teachers, government officials, merchants, normal school students, and representatives of organized labor. On the board of directors, constitutionally limited to twenty-five members, an effort has been made to maintain a balance between the two sexes, between the Porto Rican and American elements, between medical and lay, between Protestant and Catholic, and even between the two Porto Rican political parties; for it is sincerely desired that the league shall represent no clique or class, however admirable, but the whole people of Porto Rico.

The necessarily bi-lingual and bi-racial character of the organization has added greatly to the clerical work involved and not infrequently complicated the psychological situation. But the incidental good feeling brought about by the association of Porto Ricans and

Americans in a common work has more than compensated.

The amount of tuberculosis in the island of Porto Rico is a matter of conjecture, as the disease is not yet registered. All authorities agree that the percentage is high. An effort was made two years ago to form an idea of the number of cases in San Juan through a canvass of local physicians. If the figures obtained can be trusted and the same proportion exists over the island, there must be at least six thousand cases among its million inhabitants.

The climate is mild and healthful, permitting continuous out-of-door life, but several causes have contributed to make tuberculosis disproportionately prevalent:

First, the extreme poverty of the bulk of the population, who have subsisted for centuries on an almost exclusive diet of rice, beans and plantains; second, the unsanitary mode of life of the great majority, and their ignorance of the infectious character of tuberculosis and of the way to avoid contagion; third, the universal dread of night air, which means, even among the well-to-do, sleeping absolutely without ventilation, while among the poor the situation is aggravated by overcrowding; fourth, the prevalence of tropical anæmia, estimated by the Anæmia Commission to affect

ninety per cent of the rural population. The debilitating effect of this disease makes the sufferer an easy victim to tubercular infection.

To grapple with this serious situation, the only step taken before the formation of the Anti-Tuberculosis League was the passage of an anti-spitting ordinance, indifferently enforced. No institution dedicated to the treatment of tuberculosis existed on the island. To the little town of Mayaguez belongs the credit of having had for some years past a tuberculosis ward in the general hospital; but in San Juan, the capital and metropolis of the island, these cases were refused at the Presbyterian Hospital, the best equipped institution, and at the Municipal Hospital, where they were received only under protest when in the last stages and peniless. They were put into the general wards side by side with surgical cases.

The writer became interested in the subject through a concrete instance. A servant in her employ was found to be suffering from tuberculosis. It was impossible to care for her in the house. It was impossible to send her home, be-

cause she had no home. She could not be received at the Presbyterian Hospital because of its rules, nor at the Municipal because she was not yet dying. The writer had objections to turning the girl into the street. The deadlock, which appeared absolute, was broken by a suggestion of Dr. Dobal, afterwards medical director of the league's sanatorium, at that time an assistant health officer of San Juan in charge of the Quarantine Hospital Camp for Contagious Diseases. There was a lull in contagious diseases just then, the site was an excellent one on the edge of the sea, swept by refreshing trade winds, and Dr. Dobal offered one of his empty tents and an unlimited diet of milk and eggs to the patient in question, who, after three or four months' treatment, was discharged apparently cured.

Out of this case, which attracted considerable attention, grew the effort which resulted in the organization of the Anti-Tuberculosis League. The first idea was simply to form a temporary organization to buy and equip fifteen or twenty tents to be presented to the city health department and used for



TENT HOUSES FOR CHARITY PATIENTS

tuberculous patients in connection with the city's hospital system. Dr. Dobal offered his services gratuitously to the intended camp, and it was understood that the city would provide food, medicines and attendance.

The project, as is the way with projects, grew. It was found that many persons would co-operate with a society who would not co-operate with the city health department. It was learned that the city would prefer to furnish the land and an appropriation of \$200 per month and leave to the society the responsibility of managing the camp. It was seen, meanwhile, that prevention was at least as important as cure, and that a campaign of education was as much to be desired as a sanatorium. It was found that in order to own property the society must be incorporated. And so, by invitation of Governor Winthrop, a large meeting was held in the throne room of the governor's palace, articles of association were read and adopted, a board of directors elected, and a subscription opened. That was on March 31, 1906. On April 1, 1907, after a year of unremitting labor, the league's sanatorium camp was opened to patients.

The most serious problem with us, as I suppose with others, has been the financial problem. It has been, perhaps, unusually difficult for us because of the racial and social traditions of the Porto Rican people, who have lived hitherto under a paternal form of government, which not only did not encourage, but actively discouraged any disposition towards private initiative. It was the government which supported the church, the schools, the hospitals, and it is to the government that the Porto Rican still instinctively turns in every emergency. There are no more generous people in the world. Every one of them who is in easy circumstances supports a whole army of dependent relatives and superannuated employees. They are tender hearted almost to a fault. I have never known a Porto Rican refuse to contribute to any charity. They will give a dollar or ten dollars or a hundred dollars, according to their means, with the most perfect warmth of heart and courtesy of manner, but it would

never occur to one of the island's wealthy men (and a number of fortunes have been made in the last few years) to devote a hundred thousand dollars to endowing an institution, or even to build the one thousand dollar dining pavilion so badly needed for the Tuberculosis Camp. The development of a Carnegie, Rockefeller or Phipps will come with time, I have no doubt, but hardly in this generation.

The five thousand dollars which have gone into the building and equipment of the league's sanatorium camp was, therefore, painfully raised in small dribblets by personal appeal, by letter, and by benefit entertainments. The running expenses of the institution, whose inmates are almost exclusively charity patients, are fortunately supplied by the municipal appropriation of two hundred dollars monthly already alluded to and by a contract with the insular government under which it paid last year eighty cents a day for each indigent patient admitted through the insular health department, the number of patients not to exceed twenty-one, and this year ninety cents a day for each patient for a number not to exceed forty-two. The law authorizing this contract was obtained after a vigorous personal campaign in the insular legislature.

The great majority of the Porto Rican working classes are very ignorant, but they are not averse to new ideas tactfully presented. Much more can be done along these lines by educated Porto Ricans than by Americans, who have the difficulties of language as well as the inevitable distrust of the alien to overcome. It was freely predicted beforehand that the patients at the sanatorium would never submit to sleeping in the open air. Considerable diplomacy was needed with the first ones, especially the women, but as soon as the pioneers found by experience how headaches disappeared and appetites returned after a night with the canvas walls of their houses rolled up, they became volunteer apostles of the fresh air doctrine and converted their companions.

The large audiences drawn by the lectures given under the auspices of the league attest the same willingness to

learn, as does the eagerness with which the thousands of leaflets distributed have been received. The relations of the league with organized labor have been close and helpful. The strongest union on the island, that of the cigar makers, held its annual convention on July 14 at Caguas in the heart of the tobacco district. At its request, the league sent a member of its board of directors to address the assembly on tuberculosis in its relation to tobacco workers. The lecturer chosen was Dr. Francisco del Valle Atilas, mayor of San Juan, and one of the most distinguished physicians on the island.

The willingness of physicians and of the local press to co-operate in the campaign of education, coupled with the willingness of the people to learn, forms one of the most comforting aspects of the situation. But there are other bright spots. One sees, on looking back, how fortunate the league has been in its friends. It was fortunate at the start to secure the active interest of the Governor and Mrs. Winthrop. It has been fortunate in having as its treasurer since its foundation W. F. Willoughby, at that time treasurer, now secretary of the island, a fact which gave a semi-official character to the society's financial management and secured perfect public confidence. It has been fortunate in having from the beginning the active co-operation of one of the island's most distinguished physicians and one of the most public-spirited and self-forgetful men produced by any land, Dr. Ricardo Hernandez. Dr. Hernandez was head of the Insular Health

Department when the league was organized, and in spite of being already an overworked man, as a member of the board of directors and chairman of the medical committee, took an active part in selecting the site and designing the sanatorium. Later, having been restored to private practice by resigning his official position, he was induced when Dr. Dobal gave up the management of the league's sanatorium, to accept its directorship and the vice-presidency of the league. He is now critically ill as the result of overwork, and all connected with the league, from patients to president, are fervently praying for his recovery.

The league has been fortunate in the support of the churches, the Roman Catholic and Episcopalian bishops of Porto Rico having been members of its board of directors. It is fortunate in having among its directors and possessing the active sympathy of the leader of the Unionist party, now dominant on the island, Luis Muñoz Rivera. It enjoys also the support of the leaders of the Republican party. The former leader of that party, now retired from active politics, Juan Hernandez Lopez, has been from the outset a member of the board of directors and has placed his brilliant legal attainments at the service of the league. Finally, the league has been fortunate in the support of representative women, both Porto Rican and American, among whom should be mentioned the present president of the league, Miss Acacia Gutierrez del Arroyo, and its second vice president, Mrs. Herminio Diaz Navarro.



GENERAL VIEW OF SANATORIUM CAMP

The Self-Culture Hall Association—The Rise of the Social Settlement Movement in St. Louis¹

Walter L. Sheldon

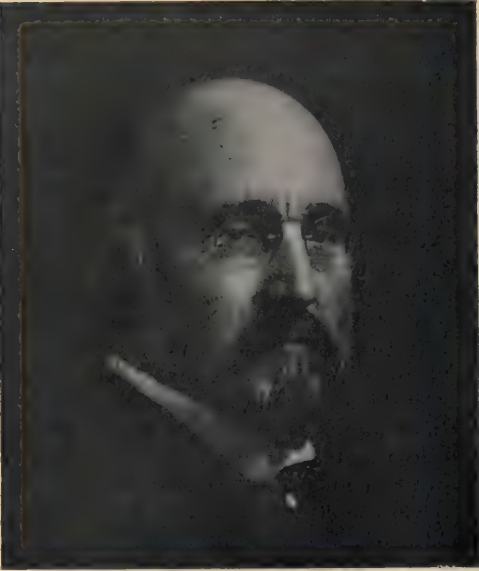
Some years ago a well known writer and social worker made the comment, as suggestive of the backwardness of St. Louis, that this city did not even possess a social settlement. He was, however, quite mistaken in his inference. As a matter of fact an institution of this nature has been in existence here for over a decade, doing an extensive edu-

at a time before the social settlement movement took root on this side of the Atlantic.

This undertaking was started about eighteen or twenty years ago in some free reading rooms, which had been opened for the use of wage-earners in evenings and on Sundays. They were located on a second floor in a busy street of small shops in a thickly populated district. Before long a Friday evening lecture course was added for the men; then a Thursday evening program exclusively for working girls. As the attendance grew and the interest increased, classes were started in various subjects, including one for the study of the civic institutions of St. Louis, and the foundations were laid for a small circulating library. An instance is recalled from that time, of a young man reading the whole set of the American Statesman Series, which had been donated by one of our prominent lawyers.

After the experiment had been given a fair trial, the people coming to the reading rooms were organized into groups under the name of Wage-Earners' Self-Culture Clubs, and they were encouraged to participate in the management of the institution.

All this was truly in the "backward" age of St. Louis. It cannot be said that the community responded promptly or with enthusiasm to these efforts, nor did large numbers avail themselves of the privileges. The writer remembers the time when he made a point of going from factory to factory at the noon hour while the men or girls were taking their lunch. In the last five or ten minutes before work was resumed, he would mount a barrel or box and with hundreds of curious faces looking up at him, tell them of these opportunities and urge them to come to the classes or lecture courses. Out of the thousands he may have addressed in this way, gradually a



WALTER L. SHELDON

cational work among the artisan class. But it was known under quite a different name, inasmuch as it had its beginnings

[This article was written shortly before Mr. Sheldon's death in the summer of 1907. He spent twenty-one years in St. Louis, and he not only built up the Ethical Society but established the Self Culture Halls. In building up these institutions his idea was that people must not only listen to lectures but they must have an outlet for their energies if they were to live ethical lives. In none of the institutions, called settlements, in the country has so much practical study work been done as at the Self Culture Halls. They were what might be called extension work and later the clubs and social features were introduced.

At the time Mr. Sheldon began St. Louis was a 'backward' city in the matter of educational and social opportunities for working people and he was the first to begin any important undertaking of the kind in that city. For many years it was an uphill fight but both the Ethical Society and the Self Culture Halls Association have proven themselves splendid achievements.

—EDITOR]

nucleus was formed of earnest young men and women, who cared for self-improvement and sought to attach themselves to the institution.

In the course of a few years, the work outgrew its limited quarters of a single suite of rooms and moved into an entire building of its own, taking for this purpose a large old dwelling house which in bygone days had been the residence of some wealthy citizen. As the building required a name, it was christened with the somewhat fantastic one of Self-Culture Hall, and the movement was incorporated as the Self-Culture Hall Association. At the present time we might be glad to re-christen it as a social settlement, because this would now make plainer the direction of its efforts.

But the Self-Culture Hall, with a resident superintendent became the headquarters of a movement which began to ramify over the city. In one section we would start simply a debating club; in another locality an evening lecture course, in a fourth section we opened another suite of free reading rooms. On Saturday mornings there were instituted one or more "housekeeping schools" for girls from the homes of wage-earners.

Some of these branches have continued down to the present time, while others were kept up only for a limited period, according to the interest felt on the part of the people who came there. Two of the power houses of one of the street car companies, for instance, had entertainment halls located on the second floor. With the co-operation of the companies, for several years we carried on educational work of this kind at one or more of these places for the people of the neighborhood, and also for the motormen and conductors on the street cars. Our ambition had been to dot the city with small centers of educational interest among the workers rather than to build up a large single localized institution. The main purpose in view was to reach the wage-earning elements of the population by widening their intellectual horizon, enlarging the sphere of their tastes and interests, giving them varieties of opportunity for self-improvement.

At the very outset we took the stand

which has characterized the undertaking all through its history, that it should be absolutely neutral on subjects pertaining to politics, religion or the social problem. This attitude has certainly given us the greatest possible variety in types of men and women who have associated themselves with the institution. Almost every race and religious creed in St. Louis has been represented on the membership rolls, and also in the corps of volunteer teachers and evening lecturers.

Those who did not know St. Louis as it was fifteen or twenty years ago will hardly realize what an unbroken field of effort we had. The association stood practically alone for a decade in doing this educational work.

The present Self-Culture Hall which serves as the headquarters for these activities has, however, become quite a large center in itself, with a great variety of activities. It is a wide building three stories in height, with a basement, having altogether some thirty rooms. There are two lecture halls on the top floor that can each seat about one hundred and twenty-five people. A suite of rooms on the second floor, with bed room, living room, kitchen and dining room, is fitted up for the purpose of housekeeping classes and also for teaching the many elements of housekeeping work to young women in the evenings. The other half of the second floor has been the residence quarters of the superintendent and his family. On the first floor we have a reception room, class rooms, a public reading room for men, with quarters for a janitor. And in the basement there are the shower baths, a billiard table and game room, and a small gymnasium.

While the institution, therefore, has been in one way quite in keeping with the social settlement movement, on the other hand the emphasis has always been peculiarly on the educational work. Whatever is done in the way of social organization, dramatic entertainments, dancing classes, game clubs, summer excursions into the country, has always been done with the thought of "feeding" the educational classes or the attendance at the lecture courses. We cared more

to have fifty men present for an evening talk on electrical engineering by a professor from Washington University, or for a practical address on self-help by some broad minded business man, than to have two or three hundred at a smoker or a social gathering.

Taking into consideration the eighteen or twenty years of effort, it can be said that the interest displayed for the serious purposes we had in view, has been fairly encouraging, but never enthusiastic or overwhelming. This feature has always required a certain degree of nursing; while the dancing class, the game room and the social meeting would take care of themselves. But the fact that the emphasis was on the educational work, has made the club life much less pronounced at our various centers than is usually the case with many of the social settlements in other large cities.

While the faith of the writer in the value of these efforts is stronger than ever, he frankly admits, judging from experiences in St. Louis, that the working people of this country cannot be said to be positively hungry for self-improvement. If it is expected that artisans will flock to lecture courses, classes in literature, natural science, history, art, or other subjects of this nature, there is liable to be disappointment. The men will quickly enough take up classes on subjects which may help them to get better positions or to earn larger wages. We may rouse them up to a certain point, starting the dormant intellectual interests into momentary activity. But the limit will soon be reached so far as enthusiasm goes, and then all further demands would seem to require a great deal of nursing.

We have to remember that we are competing with the dance hall, the cheap theatre and street corner life. These have a tremendous pull on the working girl or working men. Any one who assumes therefore that undertakings of this kind ought to be self-supporting and ought not to be a tax upon the community at large, surely cannot be intimately acquainted with the conditions with which we have to contend. Every educational movement which cares to

reach the higher standards of taste or interest in human nature, can only exist through the beneficence of the well-to-do classes or by means of endowment funds. If we care to widen the horizon of the artisan class, extend their range of interests beyond the simple desire to get more wages, we can only do this by a nursing process, which calls for hard labor and financial assistance from the outside.

Only as a person surveys the fruits of such efforts over a long period of time can he see the real value of such an institution. It is when he thinks of special individuals he has known and how much it has added to their lives, how it has seemed to change their temperaments and has even given stability to their characters,—it is after reflections of this nature that he is more and more inspired to continue the work.

The Self-Culture Hall work has always been predominantly a men's institution, conducted chiefly by men as directors and superintendents, and sustained by a men's board of trustees, with the emphasis on the effort to secure the attendance of men at the institution. This has perhaps made it somewhat harder to achieve results; for experience has shown that when it comes to general self-improvement, the demand for this is far more quick and general from the feminine temperament. The working girl is vastly more eager for self-culture in the broad sense than the working man. We could much more readily double the attendance from the latter class if we had thrown the stress of our efforts in their direction.

It may be asked by many people acquainted with the people of St. Louis, whether we have been able to do anything for the colored people. We may answer yes, but not directly in connection with this association. Any one who understands the conditions in this city will be aware that it would be hopeless at the present time to undertake to fuse the two elements, reluctant as we may be to confess it. But we have achieved something in this other direction under another name. The management has succeeded in founding an independent

Colored People's Self-Improvement Federation which has been in existence for a number of years and been welcomed with positive enthusiasm by those for whom it was organized.

It might perhaps be felt that some of the very best influence exercised by this whole institution has been of an indirect nature on the community at large, rather than in the actual effects produced upon individuals for whom the work is done. It is only necessary to look back over twenty years in the history of St. Louis to see what changes have been going on and to recognize some of the effects which have come from this Self-Culture Hall Association. When, for instance, the housekeeping classes for young girls, covering the various departments of home life, were organized and developed as a part of this institution, nothing of this kind in any shape or form was in the curriculum of our public schools. It would have been looked upon as a fad.

In the course of time, however, these domestic economy schools, founded and developed by one of the most capable women of St. Louis, and recently described in *CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS* became a center of normal training for young women who went out from there to transform the whole spirit of the old fashioned sewing schools, which had been a conspicuous practical feature of many churches. The authorities in control of the public schools had their attention called to this branch of the Self-Culture Hall Association, and finally began to install some of its leading features as a part of the regular curriculum. And the woman first put in charge of this new department in the public school system was the one who had been trained as superintendent and received all of her inspiration through the domestic economy schools.

Gradually as other institutions caught on to the methods of this association, certain of the church missions began to work in similar directions. Some of these now refer to themselves distinctly as social settlements. The self-culture halls can no longer claim to occupy the field alone. But they were the pioneers

and broke the first ground, while their methods more and more have become the methods of these mission settlements or even social settlements on a larger scale.

Perhaps the most striking outcome of all has developed through the denominational character of this work, in the attitude of neutrality with regard to religious doctrines. Denominationalism has been very strong as a factor in this city. It characterizes St. Louis both on the religious side as well as in many other directions. The writer therefore is led to believe that this other attitude taken by our institution has had a pronounced educational influence on the churches and the religious life of this city, indirectly through the standpoint of neutrality on all subjects of this nature. It was almost startling, to anyone intimately acquainted with the life of this city, to see on a single lecture course the names of eight or ten clergymen representing just that number of separate denominations,—Roman Catholic priest, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, Unitarian ministers, Episcopal rector and a Jewish rabbi. To read a list of names on one of these programs in one of our large daily papers had a broadening effect in itself, as something wholly unique in educational work in this city. From looking askance upon the method, many came to respect it and even to believe in it. The disposition to make the mission house or parish house less and less a denominational institution and more and more a social settlement, has been growing, perhaps partly on account of this very undertaking which is being described here.

Young men and women who had been accustomed to work exclusively in charitable or philanthropic enterprises of their own church and scarcely had an acquaintance with others performing efforts of a similar nature under other auspices, met here in a common bond for the first time, teaching evening classes, or assisting in the house-keeping department Saturday mornings. In this way, clergy and laymen alike have come to realize more and more that they can be just as loyal in spirit to their denomination or their special church, and yet co-

operate as one body in practical effort for the upbuilding and uplifting of the less prosperous classes of their community.

The managers who have been in charge have therefore had little difficulty in the one direction of securing an abundance of volunteer helpers in the classes and for the lecture course. This has been the easiest part of the work. The whole faculty of Washington University in all its many departments, has been most willingly at our service in one way or another. Scores of the clergy have gladly co-operated in giving at least one or two evenings in the course of the year. Principals or teachers of the public and private schools, prominent lawyers, leading men in commercial life,

the ablest physicians of the city have responded in a most cordial way in rendering such service. One could count up the names by the hundred, looking over the past fifteen or twenty years.

Whatever funds have come by subscription for the support of the association have been secured through the brave efforts of the Board of Trustees. And these trustees have been men earnestly interested in the work, prominent in the city, and representing diverging interests.

As one looks back over a whole period of nearly two decades of experience in this line of effort faith is acquired in its significance and one has more and more confidence in the tremendous possibilities, direct and indirect, of the great social settlement movement.

Concerning Vagrancy

I. Labor Colonies¹

O. F. Lewis

New York

the Tramp the labor colony stage in proposed methods of treating vagrancy in this country may be said to have been reached. We are already quite generally convinced that our present cures don't cure; it is doubtful if vagrancy is being reduced in the United States. Breadlines, missions, short jail sentences or suspended sentences, curbstone charity, and even woodyards and industrial homes have proved of little general effect. The acute distress of the vagrant may be temporarily alleviated by public or private

This article is based in part upon portions of the following books, recently published on the subject of vagrancy:

Edmond Kelly. *The Elimination of the Tramp*. New York, 1908. Pp. 107. Price \$1.

Report of Departmental Committee on Vagrancy. Wyman and Sons, London, 1906. Three volumes, about 800 pages. Vol. I, 1 sh.; Vol. II, 4 sh., 1d.; Vol. III, 5 sh., 1d.

Louis Rivière. *Mendians et Vagabonds*. Paris, 1902. Price 2 francs.

Paul Deschanel. *Repression du Vagabondage*. In the *Revue Philanthropique*, March 15, 1908. Masson et Cie, Paris.

Robert Von Hippel. *Die Strafrechtliche Bekämpfung von Bettel, Landstreicherei und Arbeitsscheu*. In Vol. II of the *Vergleichende Darstellung des Deutschen und Ausländischen Strafrechts*. Liebman, Berlin, 1906. 14.90 marks.

¹ This is the first of a series of articles by Mr. Lewis on various phases of vagrancy. The second will embody reports received this summer from railroad presidents and managers. The third paper will treat of municipal lodging houses.

charity. Imprisonment may remove him for a short time from society, restraining him in a place where little or no work is done, and where he becomes a teacher of parasitism to those under sentence for other offenses. At large the tramp is costly and dangerous; imprisoned he is under little or no reformatory influences in county jails and workhouses, which Dr. Henderson has designated as, generally, "schools of crime."

So Mr. Kelly's book comes at a psychological moment. It is very welcome because it forces the question. The author, after a cursory glance at American vagrancy conditions, outlines for us mainly the methods used in treating vagrants at the Swiss compulsory colony of Witzwyl, and at the voluntary colony near-by. Mr. Kelly is optimistic. He believes that by the combination of free and compulsory labor colonies vagrancy can be cured.

While it may be impossible for all of Mr. Kelly's readers to follow him entirely in this belief, remembering that at best cure does not check the sources of disease (which, in the case of vagrancy,

With the recent publication of Mr. Kelly's monograph on the Elimination of

number among others child labor, seasonal occupations, dislocated trades, business depressions, railway trespass, intemperance, vice, street life of children, imprisonment in idleness in county jails), we can be glad that Mr. Kelly has graphically shown how far advanced is Switzerland in the serious study and treatment of vagrancy.

In the limits purposely set by Mr. Kelly in his monograph, he has necessarily mentioned but briefly other European countries, where for a quarter century legislators, philanthropists, and public officials have been forced to give most earnest attention to the armies of wanderers. 1882 is a classic date in German vagrancy literature, of which, as Dr. Muensterberg says, there is now quite a formidable collection, for in 1882 the first voluntary labor colony was founded in Germany, at Bielefeld, by Pastor Bodelschwingh. At that time tramps and wanderers so swarmed in Germany that on the one hand they were an acute problem for the public authorities, while on the other hand they excited keen sympathy among those friends of the underdog who wished to provide means for the restoration of the vagrant to industrial efficiency. From one voluntary labor colony in 1882 the number had grown in 1906 to thirty-three colonies, receiving 9,113 colonists; the number of days' work in all colonies in 1906 was 826,931, a figure that "makes one think."

In short, several European countries have for a generation treated vagrancy as a social problem of threatening magnitude. This fact needs emphasis in our country, where we now recognize that "something must be done," but do not in general know what we should do. We have taught other nations much about the reformatory system; we have been in the advance guard in probation work and in the development of juvenile courts; we may reciprocally borrow from Europe the results of its years of experience in seeking to deal more thoroughly with "mendicity, vagabondage, and workshyness." Von Hippel, in his thorough comparative study of the laws on begging, vagrancy, and workshyness in European countries, says that the suitable treatment

of these three features of the roving life constitutes one of the greatest social and criminal-political problems now facing European nations. "During recent decades the effort to deal adequately with vagrancy and its cognate evils has often brought together in international conferences students and experienced workers in these problems."

Within two years, England has made a most striking and exhaustive contribution to the literature of vagrancy in the monumental three volume report of the Departmental Committee on Vagrancy, which studied vagrancy conditions especially in England and Wales. This report, of folio size, containing over 300 pages, largely in double columns (and be it noticed, with an index to do the student's heart good), is a model for any vagrancy investigation we may later make. The committee took testimony from many persons well versed not only in English conditions, but also in the problems of continental countries.

In France, Rivière and others have frequently described French vagrancy conditions, and have advocated radical changes in the methods of dealing with vagabondage and begging. Only last September, Paul Deschanel reported at the session of the *Conseil Général* of Eure et Loir, that the problem of vagabondage and mendicity now preases more than ever upon the attention of Frenchmen. It reads like an American editorial to learn that in France "the increasing number of nomads now moving from village to village, the threats by which they obtain things from the country folk, the crimes and transgressions committed by this army of 40,000 men, against whom the state constabulary and the police fight a losing game, and lastly the weakness of the prosecution and the judges all combine to render this scourge of vagrancy more and more intolerable."

England's difficulties and methods of meeting vagrancy questions much resemble ours. France has ineffectively tried to enforce laws a century old by means of inadequate correctional institutions. Belgium is characterized by a great "institutional prison for vagrants" at Merxplas, and by a central registra-

tion bureau at Brussels, as well as by long-term sentences for the able-bodied, intentional tramp. Holland has sought to return the vagrant to the land, but has developed colonies for families, with little solution of the vagrancy problem. Germany more than any other country has evolved a highly ramified system of relief way-stations, home inns, and labor colonies, in which connection the stress has been upon voluntary colonies for the redemption of vagrants. In Switzerland, particularly at Witzwyl, under the supervision of a remarkably efficient director, co-ordinated compulsory and free colonies have been established, and the enforced labor of the one, followed by the chances of work offered by the other, have resulted in the probable reformation of a certain proportion of those committed to Witzwyl for vagrancy and workshyness.

What are, briefly, some of the results of European experiences? In England the Departmental Committee finds that the present system of casual wards, workhouses and short sentences neither deters the vagrant nor affords any means of reclaiming him, and the committee is unanimously of the opinion that thorough reformation is necessary. Mr. Loch of the London Charity Organisation Society estimates the number of vagrants in England and Wales to be between 60,000 and 70,000. The proportion of bona fide workingmen travelling in search of employment is estimated as less than three per cent. The witnesses before the committee, with hardly an exception, expressed themselves as strongly in favor of habitual vagrants being sent to compulsory labor colonies; there was a consensus of opinion that the evil resulting from present English conditions is so great that it is worth while going to the trouble and expense of making the experiment.

Therefore, the committee has reported that government institutions for the detention of the more difficult cases will eventually be found necessary in England. The committee recommends, however, that the first labor colony, though compulsory in nature, be established not by the state, but by councils of county or

city boroughs, or by philanthropists. But it is difficult to see how the restraint necessary in a compulsory colony could be exercised save by the public authorities.

In France, just 100 years ago, Napoleon, paying special attention to the treatment of mendicancy and vagabondage, caused the issuance of a decree sharply differentiating the beggar from the vagabond, and providing mild treatment for the beggar and severe treatment for the vagrant. "The incapacitated vagrant is to be cared for in a public institution; if such an institution is lacking, he shall be allowed to beg. The able-bodied beggar shall be placed in a correctional institution until he has learned to work, and at least for a year! The vagrant is to be locked up in a *maison de détention*, and after having served his term of imprisonment he shall be under the supervision of the police for an indefinite period, determined by his conduct." In short, Napoleon planned a century ago the establishment of three different kinds of institutions: infirmaries for the incapacitated, repressive institutions for the able-bodied beggars, and houses of detention for vagabonds. But because of the swarms of incapacitated poor, the infirmaries developed at the expense of the workhouses.

The French penal code makes vagabondage a crime, but defines the vagabond as one who has no definite domicile, no means of subsistence, and habitually neither trade nor profession, three negative factors. To-day, however, as Von Hippel points out, the positive factor of the intention of the vagrant must be established, in order to prove his culpability. In our American laws on vagrancy this factor is frequently missing, and the fact that in some states the man without work, home and money is therefore a vagrant is the very reason why the judge, in the absence of a proved intention of vagrancy, will not commit the "down-and-outer" arraigned before him.

So in France unintentional vagrancy seems often not culpable. The punishment for intentional vagrancy in France is imprisonment for from three to six months, followed by exile from certain places, defined in each individual case,

for the space of from five to ten years. Simple begging is punishable only in those places in which there is a *dépôt de mendicité*. In other places only habitual begging by able-bodied persons is punishable. In short, begging where there is no public chance to secure aid, is not a crime. And since about half the French departments have established no such *dépôts de mendicité*, it is easy to understand why Monsieur Deschanel has been obliged to report such armies of vagrants and beggars as those cited above. Although for nearly thirty years reforms in vagrancy legislation and in the treatment of vagrants and beggars have been continually urged in France, Von Hippel reports that the present French law is recognized as quite inadequate to deal with the growing problem.

In 1891 Belgium passed vagrancy laws of noteworthy importance, the fundamental proposition of which was that "rebellion against the law of labor, together with voluntary and habitual idleness, alone justify correctional measures, and that society should punish only those who do not want to work." Every vagabond must be apprehended, every beggar may be apprehended and brought before the magistrate. The incapacitated prisoner, or the prisoner who does not "exploit charity as a professional mendicant nor live in idleness, drunkenness or loose customs," may be sent to a *maison de refuge* for not over a year, or may be discharged. For juvenile vagrants, under eighteen, there exist the *écoles de bienfaisance* with commitment until majority. For able-bodied, intentional vagrants or beggars the *dépôts de mendicité*, with commitment for from two to seven years. But the average length of imprisonment at Merxplas, the noted Belgian *dépôt*, is eighteen months.

Of great significance is the fact that by these newer Belgian vagrancy laws the short sentence is quite done away with. A judicial decision in the case of the apprehended vagrant must be reached within twenty-four hours. There is at Brussels a *casier centrale de vagabondage*, a central registration bureau, where complete records are kept of all vagrants who have come within the law. Full infor-

mation can be received telegraphically by the court from the *casier centrale*, thus enabling the judge to render far juster decisions than can our American magistrates, even if they were thus willed, in the entire absence with us of adequate records of the unknown "down and outer."

Merxplas, the Belgian compulsory *dépôt de mendicité*, characterized by Mr. Kelly as an industrial village rather than a farm colony, had in January, 1905, a population of 5,110. The Departmental Committee's report states that on the day of the committee's visit only twenty of the colonists were there for the first time. Most of the inmates are practically permanent residents. Nearly everything required is made by the colony, and all the buildings have been erected by the colonists. Discipline has little or no active reformatory effect. Von Hippel's resumé of the Belgian laws and efforts at the suppression of vagrancy deserve quoting. "One is not justified in any unlimited admiration for the Belgian law. Undoubtedly the law has not succeeded in bringing about any thoroughgoing reduction in vagrancy and begging. Yet one must not call the effect of the legislation of 1891 bad in general. No legislator will be able to root out begging and vagrancy; such an idea is utopian. The aim can simply be to reduce vagabondage and begging to the minimum number of cases." Mr. Kelly reports more optimistically upon Belgium and Holland, stating that there are no vagrants to be seen on the streets or highways of either of these countries. It is somewhat hard to reconcile Mr. Kelly's statements in the preface of his book that "for years in Holland and Belgium vagrancy has been unknown," with the annual records of commitments to Merxplas alone in Belgium, which show for the five years 1900 to 1904 a total of 21,674 admissions, the annual admissions being in 1900, 3,547; 1901, 4,348; 1902, 4,515; 1903, 4,049; 1904, 4,615.

Nowhere as in Germany has the problem of vagrancy been so subjected to the "laboratory method." Dr. Muensterberg has reported, as mentioned above, that there were in Germany in 1906, thirty-

three voluntary labor colonies, receiving in that year 9,113 colonists, the number of days' work in all colonies being 826,931. In all Germany there were, in 1905, in addition to the voluntary labor colonies, 462 home inns (corresponding in many ways to our wayfarer's lodges), giving 4,089,093 lodgings that year to 2,307,830 lodgers. "Furthermore," continues Dr. Muensterberg, "there are at present in Germany about 1,200 *Verpflegungsstationen*, wayside relief-stations, where food and lodging are rendered the wanderer in return for a stint of work." The home inns are maintained by private charity; the stations are subsidized by public funds.

For dealing with habitual vagrants there were in Germany at the time of the publication of the Departmental Com-

mittee's report, also twenty-four *Arbeitshäuser*, workhouses, similar to the compulsory colonies of Belgium. The average length of commitment to these penal institutions is one year, and admissions for the year ending March 31, 1904, were 10,363. Numerous trades are carried on.

What are the results of this elaborate provision by varied institutions for the wanderer and vagrant? Germany has had a quarter century of intimate experience with the problems that now are looming large in the United States. It is well to compare the conclusions of several writers and statisticians. Mr. Kelly believes that "Germany can contribute little of interest to the American student, for although there are many admirable labor colonies there, the colony

STATISTICS OF GERMAN VOLUNTARY LABOR COLONIES

	1895	1900	1903
Colonies	26	32	34
Colonists admitted	7,869	7,494	10,307
Refused admission	3,521	1,384	2,792
Accommodations for	3,179	3,660	3,978
Left colonies	7,832	7,228	10,338
Remaining, end of year	3,024	3,258	3,969
Days' work done ('96)	631,447	677,782	939,276

Percentages for Five Years, ending 1903

Ages, 20 and under	5	Previously admitted, 4 times	5
21-30	19	" 5 times	3
31-50	53	" 6 times	2
51-60	18	" more than	
61 and over	4	6 times	7
Conjugal Condition, Unmarried	78	Reasons for Leaving Colonies	
Married	4	Discharged at own desire	57
Divorced	6	Found situations themselves	10
Widowed	9	Situations found by Colony	9
Separated	3	Rejoined families	2
Occupations, Laborers	30	Dismissed, sickness	3
Agriculture and Fishing	11	" incapable	1
Metal and Engineering	10	" request of authorities	1
Building Trades	8	" bad behavior	8
Commerce	5	" laziness	3
Miscellaneous	36	" expiration of time	2
Duration of Stay in Colonies		Left without notice	3
Less than 2 mos.	47	Died	1
2 up to 4 mos.	25	Refused Admittance to Colonies	
4 up to 6 mos.	12	Lack of room	55
6 up to 12 mos.	10	No settlement in district	11
Over 12 mos.	6	Too young	1
Repeated Admissions to Colonies		Too old	1
First admission	41	Illness	5
Previously admitted, once	21	Unfit for work	3
" twice	12	Intemperance	2
" 3 times	8	On "black list"	8
		Other reasons	14

system is grafted upon a waystation system (*Herbergen*) supported by private philanthropy, which is believed by many to increase vagabondage rather than suppress it; and so far they have not succeeded in paying their expenses or to any material extent in reforming their inmates."

The English Departmental Committee reports that "the voluntary labor colony of the German type is of little use in dealing with persons of the tramp class. The object of the colonies is to effect some moral reformation, but it appears that three-fourths of the colonists have been previously in prison, and there is no evidence that any substantial improvement results from the time spent in the colonies. On the other hand, the compulsory workhouses have diminished vagrancy. In Germany there has been developed the (voluntary) colony loafer. No colony where there is no power of detention would be of use in dealing with the habitual vagrant. There is evidence, too, in Germany that a man coming from a labor colony finds it difficult to obtain work, as people shrink from employing him. With hardly an exception, however, the witnesses examined by the committee have expressed themselves strongly in favor of habitual vagrants being sent to compulsory labor colonies, where they can be detained and made to work."

The present writer has compiled from the report of Schloss, Agencies and Methods for Dealing with the Unemployed in Certain Foreign Countries, London, 1904, some statistics concerning all voluntary colonies of Germany. The figures for five years, ending 1903, show the facts tabulated on the preceding page.

In short, over half the admissions to German voluntary labor colonies are of persons in the prime years of life, between thirty-one and fifty years of age. Nearly three-fourths are between twenty-one and fifty. Four-fifths of the men claim to be unmarried. Nearly half of the men remain at the colonies less than two months, an entirely inadequate time for any fundamental reformation or for the acquiring of a trade. Over half the men have been previously admitted one or more times to the colonies. Only nineteen per cent of the colonists find al-

leged positions, and there is no record of how permanent these situations are.

In Dr. Muensterberg's opinion the voluntary labor colonies have proved themselves a means of now and then restoring to work persons unaccustomed to work, "but the number of the really improved is comparatively small. Nevertheless the labor colonies are precisely for this class a very welcome supplement to ordinary poor relief, for the men really work during their stay in the colonies, and refrain from drink. A very large number of persons roam the highways of Germany who, because of their manner of living, and particularly because of drink, are no longer capable of work." Mr. Loch, general secretary of the Charity Organisation Society of London, is of similar opinion, believing in relation to English conditions that the "colony system may be of service for the defective classes, but it will not be of service for the vagrants and the unemployed, unless it be managed almost upon prison lines. If the colony method is to be adopted, it should be done experimentally, and be subjected to very close and impartial criticism of a scientific nature, quarter by quarter, or month by month."

Von Hippel, maintaining that in the case of at least half of the inmates received into German voluntary colonies the results are futile, proposes that admission should be restricted to evidently worthy and helpable persons. The unworthy and unhelpable would thus be deprived of the chance to enter and would be forced to come sooner or later under the provisions of the penal code. At present a considerable number of persons are turned away from the voluntary colonies each year for lack of room. Were only "worthy cases" chosen, according to Von Hippel, opportunity would be given for an extended attempt to help, uplift and train those who need such help and are worth the trouble. Von Hippel opposes strongly the recent suggestions in Germany that admission to a voluntary colony replace for first offenders the sentence to a compulsory colony, under the condition that the arraigned offender promise to enter a voluntary colony and remain there for some months.

In this point Von Hippel differs with

Mr. Kelly, who suggests that there be established in this country contiguous compulsory and voluntary labor colonies on the lines of Witzwyl, preferably under the same supervision. Mr. Kelly writes: "The (American) magistrate shall be left free either to commit to a forced labor colony, or to suggest to the vagrant that he sign a two months' contract with a free colony. Should the vagrant decline to sign a two months' contract, there will be no alternative but to commit him to a forced labor colony. Committal under surveillance (to the free labor colony) will put the vagrant in the free colonies under very much the same conditions as the patient in a sanitarium. The entrance gate will be kept closed; the janitor will be instructed not to open the gates for inmates for egress without a written permit from the director."

Mr. Kelly's suggestion of the two-colony system is an important one, for it is well recognized in our country that there are a certain number of wanderers who apparently should have the chance to enter voluntarily, if possible, a colony, in order to "pull themselves together," to build up, to regain courage, and to learn perhaps a simple trade, and with it self-respect once more. Von Hippel is quoted above as urging the reception in the voluntary colonies of the "worthy" vagrants, with longer and more individual supervision and training. But how is one to determine who are "worthy"? In Germany the necessity of carrying "papers" would in many instances give needed facts. But with us a decision must be almost entirely subjective. Mr. Kelly, in the writer's opinion, has not solved the problem of restraining, necessarily by compulsion, the vagrant committed to the free colony. It is the very nature of the vagrant to wish to wander. The German voluntary colonies seem unsuccessful largely because they cannot hold their inmates. Still less would an American voluntary colony be able to maintain even a fairly permanent population. To temporize with a vagrant, committed by a magistrate to a free colony, or to adopt subterfuges, or even to show him that to escape with the colony clothes he is wearing is larceny will surely prove inadequate and undignified methods of

restraint. In addition it seems inexpedient to place in the hands of the board of managers of a private colony the power of coercion and of restraint.

The difficulties attaching to such a plan, and the experiences of Germany, have led the Departmental Committee to urge for England at first only compulsory labor colonies, although the committee does not see any insuperable difficulty in at first experimentally giving such colonies into private hands.

If then the weight of evidence is in favor of the adoption of compulsory labor colonies rather than free colonies, we shall do well to take advantage of Mr. Kelly's careful outline of the Witzwyl forced labor colony in Switzerland, noting to what extent it is successful, and secondly to what extent it is representative of compulsory colonies in Switzerland and elsewhere. In 1906 there were 156 inmates at Witzwyl. Both this colony and the adjoining free colony of Tannenhof are agricultural colonies, workshops in these institutions being purely secondary. The inmates do not work in squads, the surveillants are not armed, and there is absent the atmosphere of military discipline and order that characterize Merxplas. The surveillants are hardly distinguishable from the inmates and work with them, a feature to which Director Kellerhals attaches much importance.

The food is sufficient and strengthening, good nourishment being regarded as the best means of curing drunkards. There are few escapes, from two to five yearly. Conversation is not forbidden during work time, but the presence of a surveillant keeps it free from the evils which penitentiary conversation is likely to involve. Inmates who do not yield to the good influences of the place are brought by the director before a magistrate and sent to a penitentiary. Those inmates who are deserving get about a dollar a month for their work.

After paying all their expenses in 1905 there was a deficit of Fr. 19,957. But during the year the inmates added improvements amounting to Fr. 107,000. This excellent financial result is due to the fact that the director, Herr Kellerhals, is a skilled farmer. "This colony,"

continues Mr. Kelly, "not only manages to pay its expenses, but also, by a very simple method, reforms all those capable of reformation. The inmates are offered at the expiration of their term the choice of working for a period at the free colony of Tannenhof, or of working in some of the numerous small colonies which the director is instituting around Witzwyl. This is perhaps the feature of Witzwyl most worthy of our attention.

. . . . At these sub-colonies the inmates eat with their employers. They are allowed to smoke; they have good nourishment; they are not confined in their cells. . . . The same rate of wages does not prevail in all of the colonies, but at Nusschhof (one of the colonies) the inmates generally receive Fr. 40 a month in addition to their meals and lodging. . . . Of course Tannenhof does not pay its expenses; it cannot be expected to do so in view of the character of its inmates."

For the United States, without the combination of compulsory and free colonies under the same or affiliated management, it would seem likely that the compulsory colonies would be not so much reformatory as deterrent, furnishing at least a place to which vagrants could be committed for adequate terms and adequate labor, and adequate care and treatment. It does not appear that Witzwyl alone reforms its inmates to any considerable extent. It is difficult to be as hopeful as Mr. Kelly is in regarding the labor colony as a means for the "elimination of the tramp." Preston Thomas, an official investigator for the Departmental Committee, testified regarding the colonies in Switzerland that in general vagrancy and begging have been very much reduced by the forced labor system and by the help that is given by the Inter-Cantonal Union to the people who are really in search of work. The officials in the colonies can judge of the results of the colonies on the men only by the fact that there are not very many men who return to colonies again and again. Speaking of Witzwyl, Preston Thomas stated that the people in charge of the colony think that it does have a certain reformatory influence, but that a great many colonies in Switzerland make no

such claim. "In one of the voluntary colonies there it was frankly said, 'Oh no, we do not reform them here; it is only a little more employment made available; we give them a chance of working, but we do not pretend to reform them.' They told me at all those places (the colonies), when I asked about reform: 'Well, if a man comes here over forty years of age, and he has been a loafer for any time and given to drinking habits, there is not the least chance of reforming him; nothing that anybody can do for him will cure him. But if we can get him here under thirty or thirty-five, then he may shake off his drinking habits, after being kept compulsorily away from drink for eighteen months or whatever it is.'" Preston Thomas testified also that at other forced labor colonies the results were not equal to those at Witzwyl, partly because "to Witzwyl they generally send the more thoroughly able-bodied, the picked men."

The weight of testimony would seem to be unfavorable to the voluntary labor colony as a means of extended reformation of its inmates. The compulsory colony, with its long sentence and adequate work and care, seems to have some reformatory effect, and to act as a deterrent. The compulsory labor colony furnishes no solution to the question as to what should be done for the "honest unemployed workman, seeking work by wandering." The fact that the English committee believes that only three per cent of wanderers falls into this category is no criterion for us. Several continental nations have tried way stations, home inns, and more recently, free employment bureaus.

The consideration of these institutions must be deferred until a later article. To a later issue is also deferred a synopsis and discussion of the important "Labor Colony Bill" drafted recently for New York state conditions by Mr. Kelly, Commissioner Hebbard, and others. The bill is to be introduced in the 1909 session of the Legislature, and has received the approval of leading charitable societies of New York city, as well as the active encouragement of several of the trunk lines having terminals in New York city.

Communications

GIVE THE BREWERS A CHANCE

TO THE EDITOR:

Your issue of July 25, contained a most interesting account of the recent brewers' convention in Milwaukee, and in a later issue you commented favorably upon the action of the brewers. The attitude which the manufacturers of beer and distilled liquors are now taking towards the question of temperance is surely a new departure which will be eagerly watched by all who feel keenly the evils of intemperance and the saloon.

Of the magnitude of these evils there can be no question, but the prospect of their suppression has not hitherto been promising. The struggle against the drink evil has been too much hampered by abnormal and unhealthy conditions. On the one side is the saloon, and it would be difficult to exaggerate its evil effect, the lives it has blasted and the misery it has caused to innocent people, and—what is perhaps even more important—its political influence, as the gathering place of all the worst elements in any community and the seed plot of corruption and inefficiency in public administration. But the most striking element in the situation as hitherto existing is that the saloonkeeper, by common consent cast out of decent society and looked down upon as a necessarily vicious element in the community, has frankly accepted the position. He looks upon himself, for the most part, as necessarily a lawbreaker, as one who thrives by the misery of others and associates with the vilest. The class have lost their self respect. This is one of the unhealthy conditions of the present situation.

This attitude has been thrust upon the saloonkeeper and his assistants, and the second unhealthy element is the radical and uncompromising nature of the forces which have brought about this state of affairs. One hesitates to criticise a body of men and women who have done such earnest and self-sacrificing work as the prohibitionists, and who have been incessant in their pursuit, while the great body of respectable people of more moderate principles have for the most part stood on one side and have taken but little part in the struggle against social and political degradation through the influence of the saloon. Nevertheless, the uncompromising principles with which the struggle has been mainly prosecuted—based as they are upon the untenable proposition of a moral taint inherent in the liquor trade, and the consequent necessity of its total annihilation—have very much retarded true temperance reform. The actions of these men and women, however sincere they may be, are based upon a false premise. It is this fact

which has shrouded the cause of temperance in an unhealthy atmosphere. It has introduced abnormal conditions and has probably done as much as anything else to keep earnest and intelligent men from lending their efforts to the cause.

A remarkable awakening has during the past years come over the country. Under the action of local option laws large areas are now "dry." The question is, Have we arrived at stable conditions? Can the gains in behalf of temperance be maintained? Is the result altogether satisfactory? The writer's experience leads him to doubt whether an affirmative answer to these questions can be maintained. In a community which has voted "no license" it requires great vigilance and energy and the expenditure of much money on the part of patriotic citizens to prevent the illegal sale of liquor, and to minds unbiased by preconceived notions it would seem preferable that, in a community where there exists any considerable "drinking" element there should be a minimum number of respectable places where, under decent conditions, liquor can be bought. While we and our likeminded friends may greatly desire to banish all intoxicating liquors, we must recognize that this is a difficult and, in most communities, probably an impossible task. If nothing is done in a "dry" town to enforce the law, the concealed sale and secret drinking will probably make conditions worse than with "license," and with the present difficulties of enforcing the law, the energy and the money needed for this purpose must be hard to find. It would certainly be interesting if some temperance society should gather statistics over a considerable area which would show in how many communities the law is enforced and how much of private effort and money goes into this enforcement.

The establishment of respectable taverns, where the laws governing the sale of liquor are obeyed has hitherto been impossible, largely I think owing to the abnormal conditions of which I have spoken. The recent action of those representing the liquor interests have now altered the prospect. It is certainly a propitious sign, and it is ungracious at the outset to condemn their attitude as insincere. If the brewers and distillers will endeavor to improve the moral status of the saloon and will restore to the saloonkeeper his self respect as one who is pursuing a legitimate trade, if they will co-operate with sane and intelligent temperance reformers towards the abatement of the social and political evils of the saloon, the cause of temperance will be lifted into a healthful atmosphere and a long step will be taken towards the solution of this grave problem.

L. HENRY SCHWAB.

Sharon, Conn.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

FOR A NEW CHICAGO CHARTER

Agitation for a new charter is revived in Chicago. A very large proportion of the members of the recent charter convention reassembled last week at the call of the chairman, to discuss the feasibility of conserving the year's hard work which these seventy-two representative citizens devoted to the preparation of a bill formulating a complete charter for the city. The overwhelming repudiation of the measure submitted by the Legislature to the referendum vote, is generally conceded to be due to the omission by that body of some of the best and most desirable features of the convention's work, and to the addition of other features detrimental to the progress of the city. The reluctance of the people to commit to either candidate for the mayoralty the increased powers proposed by the legislative charter added to the popular distrust of that instrument. As the next session of the Legislature falls between mayoralty elections, it is now considered to be the most favorable opportunity to prepare a bill or bills embodying the features of the charter convention's draft, which best stood the test of discussion and criticism, and other suggestions which were brought out during the charter campaign. It was unanimously voted to appoint a committee for this purpose, the results of whose efforts shall be submitted to the members of the convention and, when approved by them, shall be introduced in the Legislature for enactment and submission to the referendum vote of the people. An alternative proposition was made requesting the Legislature to constitute a new charter convention whose members shall be elected by

the people, but there is little or no chance that any such action will be taken.

Still another recommendation was referred to the committee that the officers of the convention be instructed to memorialize the coming Legislature to submit to the voters of Illinois the question of convening a constitutional convention. This was urged on the ground, that "since the present constitution of Illinois was adopted in 1870, Chicago has changed from an overgrown village to a metropolitan city, while the state at large remains the greatest agricultural state in the union; which situation has developed conflicting needs and interests that require divergent forms of government." The present constitution is conceded by all to be too narrow to allow these interests to be properly adjusted, and in the opinion of many, the only way to cure the ills of the state and city and to deal out even-handed justice for all is through a constitutional convention.

GRAND JURY INDICTMENT OF SPRINGFIELD POLICE

Our editorial reflection upon the responsibility of the police department in Springfield, Illinois, for the shameful outbreak of mob violence which shocked the nation, has already received public substantiation from an unexpected source. A special grand jury has returned 107 indictments not only against the rioters who took part in that atrocious affair, but against four members of the police force for the personal part they played in the tragedy. In so doing the administration of the department is unparagonably condemned in the scathing terms which we quote for the benefit of other communities where similar conditions may

produce the same terrible results, if not fearlessly disclosed and eradicated:

After the most diligent inquiry we condemn in unmeasured terms the cowardly, contemptuous action of those members of the police force who, having taken the oath of office to do their duty, having been paid with moneys obtained from the pockets of the people of this city to protect life and property, and having been ordered by the heads of the department of police to go and disperse the mob, not only failed to use a club, handle a pistol or raise a voice against the mob and on the side of law and order, but some of whom assisted by act and word in doing the work that has brought destruction to thousands of dollars' worth of property and has brought the blush of shame to every law-abiding citizen. These men under their oaths were bound, and, had they acted promptly, could have driven back to the vile obscurity from whence it came the mob that for a time seemed to hold Springfield in its bloody grasp.

We recommend that the civil service commission of the city of Springfield, without fear or favor and while evidence can easily be obtained, determine by fair trial who failed to prove himself a worthy member of the force and deal with him accordingly.

We also recommend that the civil service commission inquire diligently into the so-called "third degree" or "sweating process", said to be carried on in various cases at the city prison, and if it is found that after arrest a prisoner is struck by hand or club or otherwise mistreated, either in the city prison or in any of the rooms connected therewith, that the same be stopped.

The people of the city of Springfield will sanction mob violence neither outside of the city prison nor within its walls.

PUBLIC SCHOOL AND PUBLIC HEALTH

The subject to be discussed at the Conference of Eastern Public Education Associations at their forthcoming meeting to be held under the auspices of the Public Education Association of Washington, D. C., September 22 to 29, is The Public School as a Safeguard to Public Health. These dates were chosen that the delegates and others interested might at the same time profit by the sessions of the International Congress on Tuberculosis which has possession of Washington at this period.

The subject which is a timely one will be considered by a number of well known authorities. Dr. Henry M. Leipziger

of New York will give an illustrated talk on The Use of the Modern School House. School Hygiene as a factor in public Advancement will be discussed by Dr. Pearce Kintzing, and The Teaching of Hygiene in the Public Elementary Schools by Dr. A. Duncan Yocum. The Rev. Milton Fairchild will speak on Moral Health Through School Athletics and Dr. Charles Gilmore Kerley on The Public School in Relation to the Future Health of the Individual. Judge William H. DeLacey will deal with Social Health in a paper on The Juvenile Court and its Relation to Social Health and Miss Julia Richman will speak of the Social Health of a School District. Prof. Percival Chubb will have a paper on Some Aspects of Moral Hygienics. German Administrative Methods in Relation to the Health of Public School Children is the subject of Prof. L. R. Klemen. The health commissioner of New York, Dr. Darlington, will discuss the question of Medical Inspection of School Children in New York city, and Dr. G. Adolphus Knopf, Tuberculosis, the Child and the Teacher.

In addition a number of other important topics bearing on the general subject will receive due consideration.

CINCINNATI'S INDUSTRIAL SITUATION

The Associated Charities of Cincinnati reports that the prospects for employment and the general situation for the coming winter, are poor. There has been more or less work during the summer and a good many families have been managing to live, but they have not been saving any money, and will be applicants for charity this winter. The demands upon the charities during the summer have been almost unprecedented. Thirty-three families applied for help on Tuesday, September 1. That would be considered a very large number for a mid-winter day of an ordinary year. The index to the present condition is the fact that the Associated Charities has been called upon in a good many instances to pay rent. Unless industrial conditions improve greatly a very heavy winter's work is expected.

HOW STRENGTHEN WOMEN'S UNIONS

The National Women's Trade Union League recently held the first assemblage of the women of organized labor ever gathered together in the United States. It met simultaneously in three conventions, in Boston, New York and Chicago. The meetings were largely attended, and gave a great impulse to the industrial movement among women as well as a stimulus to public interest and sympathy. A second and similar set of meetings is announced to take place shortly.

The president, Mrs. Raymond Robins, and the members of the national executive board, have issued a call for a conference of women unionists, to be held concurrently in Boston, New York and Chicago, on Friday, Saturday and Sunday, September 25, 26 and 27, to discuss the question of How May Women's Unions Best Be Strengthened?

The Chicago meeting last year drew its delegates from six states of the middle west,—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Missouri and Wisconsin. They represented twenty-three cities and thirty trades. It is anticipated that even a wider field will be covered this year, especially as a new league, that of St. Louis, has come into existence this summer.

TRENTON BOYS PLAY BALL

The baseball developments on the playgrounds of Trenton, N. J., this season have not been paralleled anywhere. They make a remarkable story. The beginning of the development seems to have been simple enough. A wave of baseball enthusiasm spread over the boys of Trenton in the spring, as it does in all our cities every spring. Officials of the Y. M. C. A. asked the Common Council to provide grounds where the boys might play without molestation and the council showed unusual interest. A canvass of the city revealed more than 100 boys' nines already formally organized. These were combined by the men who were taking the matter in charge into three leagues, according to age: The Midget League in which the lads were from ten

to fourteen years of age; the Intermediate in which they were from fourteen to sixteen; and the Junior in which the maximum age limit was eighteen. Before these arrangements were completed, the number of clubs whose membership was accepted in the leagues had risen to 200. Each age division was then subdivided into four or more sections, and at the head of each section was placed a member of the Common Council as its president. There was formed also, from the most prominent men of the city, a set of officers and board of directors for the combined leagues. The councilmanic presidents of the fourteen sections, comprising the three age leagues, ordered at the city's expense 2,000 uniforms, together with balls, bats, catching masks, etc., for the boys and engaged three playground experts to supervise the work of arranging the games and looking after the boys while they were playing. Many ball grounds were given, the donors including, for example, the state, the American Bridge Company, various other industrial concerns, the Board of Education, the Y. M. C. A., and E. C. Hill, a playground commissioner, who not only gave a large field, but erected on it a club house and bath. An abandoned reservoir was fitted up as a stadium, and the opening day of the league season was a memorable occasion. Two thousand boys in full baseball regalia, marched behind 500 prominent citizens, through streets lavishly decorated with flags and bunting and crowded with spectators. At the stadium there were addresses and a flag raising, and the mayor of the city acted as umpire for a game between two clubs of the Midget League. From that date on, league games are said to have averaged twenty a day, with as many as forty-five on Saturdays. The small boys play in the mornings and early afternoons, while for the lads who work there are twilight games, between 5:30 and 7 P. M. More than 100 umpires made up of doctors, lawyers, clergymen and business men, are in requisition; a former mayor has offered a medal for the best player on each club, and many prizes have been offered for successful teams. Famous players from the National and

American Leagues have been invited to address the youngsters. Rules of the leagues require suspension for the first offense of swearing while in uniform or of smoking during the game, and for the second offense expulsion. Umpires are instructed to keep records of offenses, and the club of each league that has the cleanest record at the season's end is to be rewarded. The boys of Trenton have been so busy with baseball this summer that one can readily believe the statement that they have had no time for mischief.

SOCIAL COURSES IN UNIVERSITIES

Two new courses intended to bring college students a little closer to the vital social questions of the day have been announced by the faculties of Cornell and Yale Universities. An indication of the growing importance of these problems from the educator's standpoint is found in the fact that one of the courses is planned primarily for students in medicine and sanitary engineering, and the other for divinity students. Hygiene and Public Health is the title of the lectures to be given at Cornell University in co-operation with the State Department of Health. A few of the lecture topics and speakers are:

The Relation of the State to the Health of the Rural Community, R. A. Pearson, state commissioner of agriculture; Social Problems in their Relation to the Public Health, Professor J. W. Jenks; The Public Health Law, A. H. Seymour, secretary of the State Department of Health; Voluntary Organization in Public Health Work, Homer Folks, secretary State Charities Aid Association; Bacteriology and Comparative Epidemiology, Professor V. A. Moore.

University credit will be given to students taking the course. It is expected that the lectures will be of such an interesting character as to attract those who do not desire to receive credit but who wish to become acquainted with the important questions of public sanitation.

The Yale Divinity School has announced a course in "pastoral functions", whose aim will be "to fit and inspire the student to meet every emergency of min-

isterial life on the practical side from the point of view of the active ministry." The lecture topics emphasize the new idea of the church and ministry,—not that the minister is to serve the church alone, but that the minister and the church together shall serve society. Following are some of the speakers with topics: Rev. Charles S. Macfarland of South Norwalk, Conn., The Minister's Opportunity in Association with Civic Reform, Industrial Organizations, Political Life and Similar Movements of Society; Rev. Anson Phelps Stokes, Jr., New Haven, Conn., The Essentials of a Ministry to Men; Rev. Ozora S. Davis, New Britain, Work among Non-English Speaking People; Rev. Frederick Lynch, New York, The Relation of the Minister to National and International Movements of Ethical Reform.

Arrangements for a similar course are being made with the view of emphasizing more particularly the minister's part in social movements. These lecturers will include John Mitchell, vice-president of the American Federation of Labor, and Henry Sterling, secretary of the Typographical Union, of Boston.

Courses of instruction will also be furnished in the conversational use of German, Italian, Swedish and Russian.

NEW YORK LABOR REPORTS

The latest report from the New York State Bureau of Labor for the last working day in March shows that out of 387,450 union members, 138,131, or 35.7 per cent were idle. From 386,115 reporting, 101,466, or 23.3 per cent were idle continuously during January, February and March. This amount of unemployment is the greatest since the temporary lull in business in 1897. The mean percentages of idleness for the generally prosperous decade from 1898 to 1907 were 17.5 for the end of March and 10.0 for the three months of January, February and March. 1906 holds the record as the low year of unemployment of the decade. In that year the percentage of idleness for the last day of March was 9.9 and for the quarter 6.5.

Fifty-six per cent of the union mem-

bers of the building trades were idle at the end of March, 1908, as against 37.3 in 1907, 11.1 in 1906 and 21.9 in 1905. All of the important industries in the union returns suffered heavily.

The Bureau of Labor report shows a decrease in the membership of unions to be 8.7 per cent from September, 1907, to March, 1908. The decrease in New York was 9.9 per cent, in Buffalo 7 per cent, Rochester 7.2 per cent, Syracuse 3.1, Albany 3.5, Schenectady 18.5, Troy 5, and in the remainder of the state, 5.8 per cent.

This decline followed an upward movement which had been continuous since March, 1905, and reduces the total union membership in New York state to 398,582, a point reached in September, 1906. The thirty-four labor disputes recorded by the report were relatively unimportant as compared with other years as only 1,611 were directly concerned in them, against 8,915 in 1907 and 7,800 or more in each of the three preceding years. One notable circumstance in connection with the prevailing business depression of the first quarter of the year was a very general renewal of spring union agreements, particularly among the building trades, without change of wages or hours.

DEATH OF FRANK P. SARGENT

Frank P. Sargent, for six years past commissioner general of immigration, died at his home at Washington on Friday, September 4. Previous to accepting public office Mr. Sargent was one of the conspicuous labor men in this country. At one time he was head of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, and not only in his own union, but among other labor organizations he possessed great influence.

Mr. Sargent served two years in the United States Cavalry, and in 1880 was a locomotive fireman on the Southern Pacific. He joined the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, and in two years was made vice-grandmaster. Five years later he was made head of the order.

President McKinley appointed Mr. Sargent a member of the Industrial Commission in 1898, and offered him the

position of chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing in 1900. Both of these offices Mr. Sargent declined. Since July, 1902, he has been United States commissioner of general immigration. He succeeded Terrence V. Powderly in that position.

THE MASSACHUSETTS CHARITIES CONFERENCE

The Massachusetts State Conference of Charities meets on October 20, 21 and 22 in Fall River with William P. Fowler, chairman overseers of the poor, Boston, president. The provisional program shows these main topics for discussion: Family Obligation to Support, William H. Pear, chairman; Child Life on the Streets, C. C. Carstens, chairman; The Problem of the Immigrant, Meyer Bloomfield, chairman; Children, David F. Tilley, chairman.

A new feature of the conference will be the Travelling Tuberculosis Exhibit of the Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis.

Arrangements are also being made with the Dental Hygiene Council of Massachusetts to have their Travelling Dental and Oral Hygiene Exhibit at the conference. This is the first exhibit of the kind ever assembled. Its object is to establish dental hygiene in schools as a part of medical inspection. The committee on children hopes to have an interesting exhibit of annual reports of Child-Helping Societies of Massachusetts.

The International Association for Labor Legislation

John R. Commons
Secretary of the American Section

From September 28 to 30 the committee of the International Association for Labor Legislation holds its fifth general meeting at Lucerne, Switzerland. The committee is made up of delegates from the different governments and from the national sections of the international association. The official delegates for this year from the American Section are Mrs. Maud Nathan, Mrs. Florence Kelley,

John Graham Brooks and Miss Josephine Goldmark. The president, Professor W. N. Farnam, of Yale, had expected to attend, but he is unable to do so. Probably the United States government will be represented by Labor Commissioner Charles P. Neill.

At this sitting of the international association five commissions will be appointed to report at the next general meeting: Management of the International Labor Office, lead and industrial poisons, employment of children and home work, maximum working day and administration of labor laws, insurance of foreign workmen. The reports and proposals of the different commissions appointed at the general meeting in 1906 will be presented and considered. A special commission on the night work of young persons will report at the second full sitting on the twenty-ninth.

In September, 1906, the international association held its fourth delegates' meeting at Geneva. At that time seven subjects were designated for reports by the different sections: Administration of labor laws, employment of children, night work of young persons, legal maximum working day, home work, industrial poisons, insurance of (foreign) workmen.

The American section made no report on the employment of children or on night work of young persons, as information on these subjects will be given in the forthcoming report of the United States Bureau of Labor in its investigation of women and children in industry. The fourth topic will also be covered by the report, in so far as women are concerned. Much conflicting testimony exists on the subject of the maximum working hours in mines. The topic was considered at the first annual meeting of the American section in a paper by Professor Urdahl, which is given in full in the report of that meeting. Home work was not considered a topic of international importance for the American section, since American home industries are not export industries. On account of the dearth of information no report could be made on industrial poisons. The insurance of foreign workmen is not applicable in this country.

The American section took up the question of the operation of factory inspection laws (administration of labor laws) and under the direction of the secretary made a report. At the 1906 meeting of the international association a list of questions on this subject was submitted to the different sections as a basis for uniform reporting. Returns were secured by the American section from nine states: Illinois, New York, Massachusetts, Oregon, Michigan, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Wisconsin, Maryland. This material will be presented at the coming meeting of the international association and will be incorporated in their report. A questionnaire on child labor was also prepared and submitted to the different sections. The field of child labor investigation is already covered in this country by existing organizations, but the secretary has had a comparative analysis made of the child labor laws of sixteen states, from 1906 to date. This will be continued until the laws of all the important industrial states are included. This analysis is of especial value, since it enables one to follow easily each detail of the law through the different states, and to see the progress and addition of new laws.

Other lists of questions, such as the maximum hours of work for women, especially in the textile and sewing trades, were submitted for the sections, but the American section has not been able to report on these.

Most important among these is the questionnaire on the duration of the work period in continuous industries. In the steel industry, in smelters and similar undertakings where the establishment never closes, men are compelled to work eighteen and twenty-four hours when shifts are changed. Shifts change from day to night every week, and in order to make this change each man must work twenty-four hours every two weeks. The heavy strain of these long hours is not counterbalanced by an equal period of rest. The workman's twenty-four hours of rest come a week later when the shift is again changed. The effect upon the workers is debilitating in the extreme, and becomes a large factor in the physical breakdown of the men. The remedy lies in dividing

the day into three eight-hour shifts, instead of the usual two twelve-hour shifts, or, if one day's rest in seven were required by law as in most foreign countries, the dangers of the situation could be eliminated.

One of the chief purposes of the international association is the preparation of memoranda whereby the labor laws of the different countries can be placed on an equal footing, mainly by the establishment of international treaties. Attempts to establish a minimum standard of labor legislation have failed twice before; once in 1871 and again in 1900. But the International Association for Labor Legislation has been successful in promoting several such treaties. The first was concluded between France and Italy on April 15, 1904, and had for its object a more uniform system of labor legislation. One year later the two states signed a convention to prohibit the night work of women in industrial employments. This latter convention was signed by fourteen states on September 26, 1906, namely: the German Empire, Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, the United Kingdom, Italy, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland. According to the terms of the convention no limits of age can be fixed for the prohibition of night work. The terms of the convention relating to the industries and occupations included a period of unbroken rest of eleven hours for women in all industrial undertakings in which more than ten men or women are employed. Other provisions are given in detail in the *Bulletin of the International Labor Office*.

A second notable treaty is the international convention respecting the prohibition of the use of white (yellow) phosphorus in the manufacture of matches. This also was concluded on September 26, 1906, and is signed by the following countries: Germany, Denmark, France, Italy, Luxemburg, the Netherlands and Switzerland. This treaty marks a notable advance in the idea that the state must protect the health of the working people. Japan, which has a very large export trade to the United States, refused to sign; and because Japan would not sign,

Austria, a competitor, could not do so. Other competing states, England, Belgium, Sweden, refused also to join in the convention. These latter states have important match industries and as soon as more complete investigations, reports, and agreements are reached, it is expected they also will sign the convention.

The purpose of the international association transferred to the American section becomes that of investigations and reports looking to the establishment of uniformity in laws between the different states and in promoting efficiency in the workings of labor laws. It also looks toward labor laws uniform with those of foreign countries in industries where our export trade produces competition.

Chapters in Rural Progress¹

Reviewed by Graham Taylor

President Roosevelt's appointment of a commission to report on the conditions and improvement of farm life emphasizes the significance and value of this volume by the president of the Massachusetts Agricultural College. Indeed its contents may well be taken as an outline of the scope of the government inquiry. It elaborates so fully the reasons for such an investigation and the varied and far reaching purposes which it is aimed to fulfill that these "Chapters" might well have suggested the appointment of the commission, one of whose five members the author will be.

Since his student days at the University of Michigan, Mr. Butterfield has been in first hand contact with the conditions and movements of which he writes. Each of the papers which constitute this volume was called forth by some occasion or demand, which the author met by these successive utterances. He therefore comes up to each analysis of conditions, each description of farm life, each account of the movements for rural progress from personal insight into concrete situations and with a sympathetic purpose to help those with whom he is identified solve their own problems. The value of his conclusions is so enhanced by this fact that

¹ Chapters in Rural Progress by Keweenaw L. Butterfield. University of Chicago Press, 1911. Pp. 321. Price \$1.25. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

it more than offsets the overlapping of topics, the lack of organic unity in treatment and the loss of cumulative argument involved in republishing his articles thus separately prepared.

While critical in his analyses of existing conditions, and of the attitude of mind responsible for their continuance, his criticism is always constructive and his spirit sympathetic. Even "the moss-back farmer" who retards progress is as reasonably accounted for and as sympathetically considered as "the new farmer," who leads in scientific agriculture and rural economics. The conservatism and prepossessions inevitable to the isolation and independence of farm life are rated as facts and forces to be accounted for, valued and reckoned with as truly as are the scientific principles and the economic facts underlying the new training for agricultural efficiency and prosperity. As the head of the state agricultural college, first in Rhode Island and now in Massachusetts, President Butterfield lays all the emphasis to be expected from him upon the necessity and value of scientific training for business success on the farm. But the whole stress of his plea throughout this volume is for "the man behind the plow," the family on the farm, the social conditions of the rural community which make country life and work not merely enduring, but attractive, inspiring, and personally developing. To this end he counterbalances some of the admitted disadvantages in farm life with certain advantages inherent in close and constant contact with nature. He shows how possible it is to get "culture from the corn lot." Opportunities on the farm for aspiring and college cultured men and women, are opened up. The problems and possibilities of the country school, the country church, and the farmers' organizations for fellowship and progress are most suggestively treated. The function of each of these agencies, although fully emphasized, is not thought to be capable of fulfillment except as all three federate for the common good, not only of each farming community, but also of the whole agricultural class.

Indeed the rural progress does not seem possible to him except as the individual independence of the farmer

broadens out into a consciousness of and struggle for his class. It is to be attained only by "a greater class efficiency and larger class influence," which will procure for the farmers "the highest possible class status."

This rise in status, however, is always defeated and never promoted, he clearly shows in examples from the experience of American farmers, by isolating the farming interests from the economic and political well being of the whole commonwealth. No mere combination of producers to control prices, or to secure class legislation at the expense of other classes are considered to be means to this end. The highest possible class status for our farmers in the industrial, political and social order is "a relative status that is measured by the demands of American ideals."

This is the broad thesis of the book, which balances and gives weight to its whole argument for the most effective education for rural life in primary and secondary schools, as well as in agricultural colleges, "for a social service" church and minister in the country; and for such organizations to promote the economic and social progress of the farming class of the community as Farmers' Institutes, The Grange, The Hesperia movement, the McHenry County (Illinois) Federation of Rural Forces, and the New England Conference on Rural Progress. As an account of the organized forces at work for the betterment of rural conditions under volunteer or state and national auspices, Mr. Butterfield's volume is most illuminating and encouraging. It ought to be in the hands of every country school trustee and teacher, every country pastor, every member of The Grange, every leader or leading group of men and women in each unorganized rural community.

It is to be hoped that the report of the president's commission will either be a document that can thus circulate among the people, or that it will awaken widespread popular interest in just such literature as this volume and so further one of the sanest and most promising movements in American life, which President Butterfield is so effectively promoting.

Communications

THE OPPORTUNITY FOR WEALTH

TO THE EDITOR:

The largest, least worked and most needed field for the distribution of wealth is the common school system of the country. This is so because private benefactions have never been directed along this line. And the giving in aid of popular education would not, so it seems, single out the giver as an object of much praise or public comment.

The fact is, however, that any and all other forms of public beneficence pale into insignificance compared with this one. And the wonder is that no men, to whom the stewardship of great wealth has been entrusted, have been able to see their opportunity with such wealth.

Public education is the one firm and everlasting rock on which is builded the perpetuity of republican institutions. How vastly important it is, therefore, that all effort be directed along lines which shall make effective and efficient the perpetuity of such institutions. It is impossible too strongly to emphasize its importance.

It may be answered to what has been said that the state looks after the educational affairs of its wards; that it is no part of the business of private wealth to interfere with what is clearly the duty of the state. There is truth in the foregoing. But not more truth than there is in the greater fact that it is the duty of the state to feed and clothe all of its inhabitants. And yet private benevolence is constantly doing for individual cases of want and suffering what the state must do as a duty. It is no sufficient answer to the distribution of private wealth for the promotion of the cause of public education, that the field of public duty would thereby be encroached upon.

But there is so much that can be done to make more efficient our common schools, and which, let us say it with regret, is not done by the state, or which is but partially, or inadequately done by the state, that private wealth could perform a mission which would be far reaching in its wise and beneficent effects.

Let us see what are some of the opportunities along the lines intimated. Just now there is a widespread and growing sentiment in favor of using school buildings for other than school purposes and by adults, to make the school building the social and educational center of the community. No doubt this view is sound to the ultimate limit and is bound to prevail in the near future. But to make the school buildings useful for such purposes will require the use of money, if not for the care of the buildings, for bringing into them lectures, free reading-rooms, debating

clubs, and the like. Where can vast wealth be more wisely employed than in making good citizens in these thousands of school houses throughout the land by using them as indicated? The payment of larger salaries to the teaching force in our common schools, teachers who are always quite indifferently qualified for their work, to be conditioned on better preparation, would be another step along the line of progress in school work. The enlargement of the course of study, in our rural schools, especially, offers another opportunity for educational advance, a movement, however, which would require a large expenditure of money. Libraries in every school district and a central technical or trade school, are other lines of educational effort which cannot be made generally effective until some potent man steps forward with his vast wealth for that purpose. But the field is before us. And the field is practically unworked.

Here is as it impresses the writer, an opportunity to do for a cause and for posterity what cannot be suggested to wealth in any and all other fields of human effort combined. His act would be democracy intensified to the limit. It would lead to good citizenship in the superlative form.

DUANE MORSE.

Milwaukee Board of School Directors.

THE BREWER DEFENDED

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue for August 22 there is a communication from Alfred L. Manshara entitled *An Evil Alliance*, which contains the usual mass of misrepresentation and magnification emanating from radical prohibition sources.

There is no class of business men in the country to-day of higher average intelligence or commercial integrity than the brewers. Every person who comes in contact with them in social or business life will confirm this estimate. Their business methods are no worse, but on the average much better than those that characterize other departments of trade and manufacture under our present competitive system. Factory, child labor, mine inspection, employees' liability, and other laws of like character to protect the helpless and dependent have in no instance been invited by abuses in the brewing industry. Pure food laws have involved practically all other manufacturers of food products, from the Beef Trust to the pickle manufacturer, even the farmer because of infected and diluted milk, but never the brewer. It is true that he sells to those who would buy, and when such sales are to men in prohibition territory he is exercising a legal right under the constitution of his country.

The reference to drunkenness and the number of inebriates in the United States is one of the usual exaggerations from that source. A half million habitual drunkards and another half million occasional drunkards is a ridiculous estimate. In 1900 there were 21,329,819 males twenty-one years of age and over in the United States. As women do not to any great extent belong to the drunkard class, this would mean one drunkard to about every twenty-two adult males. Such an estimate is simply ridiculous.

I am not inclined however to support the plan proposed by *Collier's*. It is not the brewer's business to turn policeman or to censor the trade. The department store sells to all comers without inquiry into their character. The butcher, the baker, the grocer, do the same. Why should the brewer usurp the prerogative of the police department? There is not a dive in the slums or a resort in the red light district whose patronage would be refused by any retail or wholesale house in the country. One of the leading department stores in this city makes a specialty of fitting up hotels and clubs, supplying everything from bar glasses to beer coolers. Yet we hear no criticism and expect none.

The brewer would have more to lose than to gain by entering into the scheme proposed, his self-respect should keep him out of it. He makes pure beer and sells it. He pays the best wages. His commercial honor is unimpeachable.

Leave the policeman to his calling, and the moral scavenger to his; the latter will usually find enough to do within his own circle and class.

GEORGE MULLER.

Philadelphia.

A PICTURE WINS A PLAYGROUND

TO THE EDITOR:

Referring to the picture "Wanted a Playground," in your issue of August 1, you may be gratified in knowing that for several years an effort has been made in Kansas City to establish playgrounds in what may be called the tenement districts. These efforts failed, not because the public was not in favor of playgrounds, but because the people in the neighborhood of the proposed playgrounds could not agree upon their location.

Under the administration of Mayor Crittenden a determined effort has been made to locate these playgrounds. The picture in the August CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS was enlarged until it was eight feet square, and in this enlarged form was placed on the walls of the mayor's office. At a meeting of the council held thereafter the playgrounds ordinance was unanimously approved, and as soon as the necessary legal steps have been taken to acquire the property we shall have a playground. The ordinance has been signed by the mayor.

KARNES, NEW and KRAUTHOFF.

Kansas City, Mo.

Jottings

Industrial Education Convention.—The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education will hold its annual meeting in Atlanta, Georgia, November 19, 20 and 21. The first day will be devoted to the meetings of state branches and state committees and to the annual meeting of the Georgia branch. A banquet will take place on the evening of November 19, at which the president of the Georgia state branch, Asa G. Candler, president of the Atlanta Chamber of Commerce, will preside. Industrial education as it relates to the prosperity of the country will be discussed at the banquet by eminent men representing the educational and industrial interests of the people of the United States. Governor Hoke Smith has accepted an invitation to extend the welcome of the state. Other banquet speakers will be Dr. Elmer E. Brown, United States commissioner of education; James Wilson, secretary of the Department of Agriculture; Andrew Carnegie and Carroll D. Wright, former United States commissioner of labor and now president of Clark College. An exhibition of trade school work from all over the United States will be one of the features

of the convention. This exhibition is being prepared under the direction of Professor K. G. Mathewson.

Jewish Home for Consumptives, Maryland.—The Jewish Home for Consumptives at Reisterstown, Md., near Baltimore, which was made possible by the gift of Jacob Epstein, and which was opened last June, is already assured of being able to extend its work through the gift of Samuel Rosenthal, who has announced his intention to present a cottage costing about \$10,000.

Jewish Social Workers, New York.—The annual election of the Society of Jewish Social Workers for the present year resulted in the selection of the following officers: Dr. Ludwig B. Bernstein, president; Solomon Lowenstein, first vice-president; Miss Ray Pearlman, second vice-president; Dr. S. Bernheimer, secretary; Morris D. Waldman, treasurer; Dr. Bertha Lubitz, Leonard S. Robinson, Simon Hirsandansky and Miss Julie Rosenberg, members of the executive board.

San Francisco Relief.—The total receipts of the Hebrew Board of Relief of San Francisco for the past year amounted to \$67,568. The board is composed of four of the Jewish benevolent societies, of which Henry Sinsheimer is president and Meyer H. Levy, secretary. The societies forming the board contributed some \$38,966 and the remainder was contributed by the First Hebrew Benevolent Society, The Jewish Ladies Relief Society and the Ladies United Hebrew Benevolent Society, together with a number of donations from various individuals. Over \$51,000 was expended in the relief and the cost of conducting the work for the year amounted to \$4,500.

Liverpool's School of Social Science.—Liverpool now has its School of Social Science and of Training for Social Work conducted by the University of Liverpool as the result of arrangements between the University of Liverpool, the Central Relief Society, the Victoria Settlement for Women and the University Settlement for Men. In order to secure the close union between practice and teaching, which is recognized to be indispensable, a general committee has been formed including representatives of the above and other bodies engaged in practical social and charitable work in Liverpool and vicinity and of subscribers of funds to the school. Professors MacCunn and Gonner of the university lecture on Social Ethics and Social Economics respectively. F. G. D'Aeth deals with aspects of the social problem, and Miss E. Macadam, warden of the Victoria Settlement, discusses social problems in relation to children. The general course occupies one year and single courses of lectures and classes as well as special courses of lectures are offered.

Advisory Council to Charities Department, New York.—The following physicians of New York city have been appointed members of a scientific advisory council to the department: Dr. Edward G. Janeway, president; Dr. Horst Oertel, secretary; Dr. William T. Bull, Dr. Joseph Blake, Dr. W. Gillman Thompson, Dr. Simon Flexner, Dr. Prince A. Morrow, Dr. Daniel M. Stimson, Dr. Clinton L. Bagg, Dr. Joshua Van Cott. The council is divided into the following committees: Hospital construction, Thompson, Bagg, Blake, Flexner, Stimson, Almirall; medical administration of the hospitals and teaching; medical supplies; classification of patients and statistics, appointments to the medical boards of the hospitals; nursing; anatomical and pathological material and its proper distribution, with supervision of the morgues of the department.

Educational Appropriation not Granted.—The appropriation of \$40,000 asked for by the United States Bureau of Education for an investigation of special educational prob-

lems was not granted and the investigation cannot be made during the year ending June 30, 1909. The total increase in the appropriation for the bureau is \$1,300. One thousand dollars of this is to provide an increase of salary for the commissioner and \$250 is added to the appropriation for books and periodicals.

For Unemployed Jews.—J. Z. Levy of Pittsburgh, Pa., recently called at the Department of Agriculture in Washington and explained that wealthy Jews of Pittsburgh desired to purchase a tract of 5,000 acres of land in Virginia. He said that the object was to locate a colony of unemployed Jews and to establish a variety of small manufacturing and to have the people engage in trucking, poultry raising, dairying and fruit growing. Mr. Levy further stated that the money is ready for payment if a desirable site is found with ample water and shipping facilities.

Employers' Liability in France.—The Paris correspondent of the *London Commercial Intelligence* states that all engaged in the metallurgic industry in France are now beginning to feel the financial effects of the act which renders the employer civilly responsible for the accidents to his workmen. He adds:

The metallurgic industry is being very hard hit in this respect. I have before me a return showing the number of cases brought before the courts for compensation, and I see that in the metallurgic industry alone no less than 6,318 cases came before the courts of France during the three months ending December 31, 1907. The number of accidents causing death was 344, and in addition to the compensation awarded to those who recovered life insurance were awarded to 160 widows and annual allowances, till of age, to no less than 300 children.

Playgrounds in Canada.—Through an active educational propaganda carried on by J. J. Keha, superintendent of the Ontario Children's Department, the subject of playgrounds in Canada at the present time. Playground associations have been organized in Toronto, Hamilton, Barrie, London and other points with the object of advocating numerous play centers properly equipped and supervised. It is pointed out that now, while the country is still young and land comparatively cheap, is the time to secure adequate play areas, and this policy is being heavily endorsed by all classes. In view of the public sentiment that has been aroused, the City Council of Toronto has promised not only to purchase new playgrounds at once, but also to equip existing grounds, and to employ at least two or three play instructors. A number of social clubs have also offered to provide workers.

Fresh Air Camp, Fort Erie.—The Jewish Fresh Air Camp at Fort Erie, N. Y., has taken care of twenty Jewish children from Buffalo in relays which have been changed each fortnight during the months of July and August. Miss Henrietta Tucker, the secretary of the Jewish Aid Society, has been mainly responsible for the success of the camp, for although not supported by the society it was through Miss Tucker's efforts that the funds were obtained from private individuals. A commodious cottage is on the grounds containing a large second story veranda which has been closed in by wire netting for the little ones who are crippled or ill.

The officers in charge of the camp are:

President, Miss Henrietta Tucker; first vice-president, Miss Silvia Bergman; second vice-president, Miss Blanche Kempner; treasurer, Miss Sadie Rubenstein; secretary, Miss Elfrida Block; other-directors, Miss Carrie Barmon, Miss Etta Cohen, Miss Violet Cohen, Miss Lillian Cohen, Miss Jane Meyers, Miss Rae Lawrence.

Philadelphia's Milk Supply.—Through the committee on public health of the Civic Club of Philadelphia a public meeting in the interest of a better milk supply for that city will be held on November 16 in Horticultural Hall. George W. Goler, Health Officer of Rochester, N. Y., has consented to deliver an address. Addresses will also be made by local physicians and laymen who are especially interested in the subject.

Compulsory Education in Canada.—Vice-Consul P. Gorman sends from Montreal the following summary of the requirements of the different Canadian provinces as to school attendance:

Quebec.—The payment of the fees of school children is compulsory, but there is no provision under the law compelling the attendance of children at school.

Ontario.—Under the terms of a special act respecting truancy and compulsory school attendance, every child between the age of eight and fourteen years must attend school for the full term each year, unless he has passed the entrance examination for high schools, or under certain other specified conditions. The employment of school children during school hours is prohibited under a penalty of twenty dollars, unless the child is required in husbandry, or in urgent or necessary household duties, or for the necessary maintenance of himself or some person dependent on him. The act also provides for the appointment of truancy officers and defines their duties. The onus of proof as to the age of the child lies with the defendant in any action.

Nova Scotia.—Children between the ages of six and sixteen years, if physically and mentally capable, must attend school for at least one hundred and twenty days in the school year, but a child over twelve years of age who passes a satisfactory examination in grade seven of common school work, and any other child over thirteen years of age who has attended school sixty days during fourteen consecutive weeks in the preceding year, if necessity requires him to work, may be exempted from the foregoing provision on permission of the local school board.

New Brunswick.—A comprehensive act providing for the compulsory attendance of children between the ages of seven and twelve years at school was passed in the year 1903. Provision was made in a special way under the act with reference to the employment of children below the school age.

Manitoba.—Under the Manitoba public school act it is declared that every person in rural municipalities between the ages of five and sixteen years, and in cities, towns, and villages between the ages of six and sixteen years, shall have the right to attend school. Attendance, however, is not compulsory.

Saskatchewan and Alberta.—The attendance at school of children between the ages of seven and twelve years, inclusive, is compulsory for a period of at least sixteen weeks each year, eight weeks of which time must be consecutive. Provision is made for the investigation of cases of non-attendance, and the appointment and proceedings of truancy officers.

British Columbia.—Every child from the age of seven to fourteen, inclusive, must attend some school or be otherwise educated for six months in every year. Exemption is granted in case the child has reached a standard of education of the same or greater than that to be obtained in the public schools of British Columbia.

A Jewish Home in Milwaukee.—A largely attended meeting of the Jewish residents of Milwaukee, Wis., was held during the month of August at which the initiatory steps were taken for the erection of a home and educational center for all Jews who are in need of help. An association was formed to take charge of the movement, and it is proposed to erect a building with reading rooms, bathing facilities, hospital wards, lodging apartments for the homeless and a large lecture hall, after the manner of similar institutions in Chicago, New York and Philadelphia. The officers of the association are president, A. Rosenberg; vice-president M. W. Klaff; secretary, Louis Cohen; treasurer, Abraham Fox. At the first meeting the association started with 100 members and subscriptions of over \$2,000.

The Common Welfare

Paragraphs in Philanthropy and Social Advance

GEORGIA'S CONVICT LEASE SYSTEM REMEDIED

As result of the first special session of the Legislature in twenty-five years, following a remarkable campaign of publicity, Georgia has passed a compromise bill which makes it possible to abolish altogether her system of leasing convicts. The law provides that the counties are to have the use of convicts for public works, distributed in proportion to their population; after them the cities; and after the cities the state prison farm for its necessary work. After that, if any remain, felons may be leased to contractors for a term of one year in place of the present term of five years. The pay of convicts' guards and wardens is substantially increased,—to \$50 and \$100 a month respectively,—and they are forbidden both by their oaths of office and by punishment for felony from sharing in the profits of convict labor and from abusing convicts. The bill abolishes the "wild-cat" camps entirely, prohibits the leasing of misdemeanants, authorizes the use of state lands for the maintenance of convicts, the keeping of a full record of each individual, and the employment of experts at road-building at salaries of \$150 a month and expenses. The bill becomes law at the expiration of the present five year leases on March 31.

The exception by which convicts in excess of the number needed for public works may be leased to contractors, will prove dangerous in proportion to the ability of prison reformers in Georgia to sustain public interest in the question and in their watchfulness of the Prison Commission and of the appointments to membership on it. While there is a great gain

in reducing the term of possible lease to one year, the condition of the individual convict is not safeguarded if lack of care should permit him to be leased five times over to the same master in one of the brutal, secluded camps. Nor has it wholly removed the incentive on the part of judges to inflict long sentences because of the value to the county of the convict's labor, whether on its own roads or as a leased workman for a contractor,—one of the points urged by the reformers. There is present, too, a strong incentive among county and city officials to cut down their requisitions for convicts both as a means of swelling the number available for contractors and to shirk the responsibilities and expense of road-making and other public enterprises on a large scale. Direct opportunity is offered for collusion between state, county and city officials and contractors.

That some such considerations were in the minds of the opponents of the bill was clearly shown by their violent opposition. The majority for it in the senate are said in the press dispatches to have passed the bill only by a fight to the finish on every point.

NEED FOR ADEQUATE RECORDS

In retracting his statement concerning criminality among the Jews of New York city, Commissioner Bingham places in a more forcible light the statement made in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS last week, that the system of court records now in use is thoroughly inadequate. Of course, the fact remains that the classification of prisoners according to their religions will be and should properly be an impossibility.

ity for court records, as such a classification would be distinctly un-American. Because a man is a Catholic or a Presbyterian or a Jew, should not in any way influence the record of his criminality. As a matter of fact in such records the Jew would be divided according to his nationality and the word Jew would not appear at all. We would have Russians, Hungarians, Roumanians, Galicians, Italians, Slavs, and so on through the strata of our population. For the same reason that Commissioner Bingham was unable to base his statements on figures, those which a committee is now gathering can hardly be of appreciable value. Prison and reformatory statistics can undoubtedly be secured with accuracy, but the record of arrests and convictions must remain a matter of conjecture. After all, the principal plea of Commissioner Bingham's article was for a secret service system and it was deplorable that his sweeping statements should have crept into it. His acknowledgment of his mistake is as manly as his first statement was impulsive.

THE NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE

Elmira is this year's meeting place for the ninth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction which will convene on November 17. The sessions will last through the 18th and 19th. Simon W. Rosendale of Albany is president, Orlando F. Lewis of New York, secretary, and Frank Tucker of New York treasurer.

The following committees will have charge of the sessions which will meet three times daily in the new Federation Building: Public health including the prevention of tuberculosis, Dr. George G. Goler, Rochester, chairman; standard of living, Frederic H. Almy, Buffalo, chairman; care of children, Charles D. Hilles, Chauncey, chairman; conditions and regulation of labor, P. Tecumseh Sherman, New York, chairman; care and relief of poor in their homes, John J. Fitzgerald, New York, chairman; treatment of criminals, Charles F. Howard, Buffalo, chairman; state institutions, James Wood, Mt. Kisco, chairman.

The committee on exhibits, Miss Kate

H. Claghorn, chairman, is making special efforts not only to have a representative exhibit, but one approaching New York city proportions. The answers already received from institutions and societies show that the exhibit will be considerably larger than that held in connection with the Albany conference in 1907. The committee on reports from counties and cities, Arthur W. Towne, of Albany, chairman, is this year sending out questionnaires which will systematize the information desired and will enable the committee to report much more exhaustively and helpfully than in recent years.

On Friday, the day after the conference, a visit to Elmira Reformatory will be made by the members of the conference. Headquarters will be at the Hotel Rathbun. Railroad lines running into Elmira will grant from points in New York state reduced rates of one and three-fifths fares for round trip.

The Federation Building is admirably adapted for the meetings of the conference. It has just been erected at an expense of over \$100,000. The hospitality and interest of the citizens of Elmira is assured. Accommodations are thoroughly satisfactory at the headquarters hotel.

Preparations are already being made for a special car to be attached to the morning train over the Lackawanna or Erie R. R., leaving New York for Elmira on Tuesday, November 17.

CHILD LABOR IN WASHINGTON

Referring to the so-called "juvenile crime wave" in the city of Washington, to which a number of newspapers have given serious attention, assigning the child labor law in the District of Columbia as the cause, the National Child Labor Committee has made an exhaustive inquiry and reports that no unusual condition can be discovered in the city of Washington. Letters from various officials and many interested citizens agree not only that no wave of juvenile crime exists in Washington, but also that the recently enacted child labor law for the District of Columbia is approved by those who are interested in the welfare of the children. To Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of

the National Child Labor Committee, Judge William H. DeLacy, judge of the Juvenile Court of Washington, writes:

Your favor of the 10th inst. is the first information that I have received as to a "juvenile crime wave in Washington" due to the Act of May 28, 1908, relative to the employment of child labor in the District of Columbia. Such a report is entirely false. On the contrary, I think the whole tendency of the act in question will be to minimize juvenile delinquency in the District of Columbia. While it may be susceptible of improvement, all good citizens are impressed with the humane spirit and purpose of this child labor legislation.

"The clipping you enclose is now brought to my attention for the first time. Rowdiness on the playgrounds, instead of being on the increase, has been practically eliminated. I do not recall a single case of juvenile delinquency caused by the operation of the child labor law. The statement is entirely gratuitous that 'many boys who have heretofore sold papers on the streets and done other work have voluntarily retired from the Washington industrial field.' The law allows badges to boys at ten years and over, to vend newspapers and engage in street trades, but the law mercifully inhibits such employment to infants under ten years of age."

JEWISH PIONEERS

IN WISCONSIN

There is a colony of Russian Jews situated near Hawkins, Wis., 150 miles from St. Paul, Minn., which is the nearest large town. This enterprise is the work of one man, John Raffleson, who was compelled to give up factory work by an accident. He took up peddling and going about into the country decided to make himself a missionary for drawing his co-religionists out of the cities and back to the soil. The new colony is small, but it owns 920 acres, sold on long-time payments at \$10 an acre. The new colony is co-operative in its plan and will have a co-operative store. Its officers, a president, vice president, secretary and treasurer, and all the heads of families, sit as a court in case of any dispute arising. Mr. Raffleson goes into Milwaukee and Sheboygan and persuades people to come out to the new colony. He has thus far succeeded in getting a nucleus of ten families and says he wants only four more as a beginning. These people are

working as the old pioneers worked, clearing the land of timber and slowly beginning their planting. They will undoubtedly be equally successful.

HARD TIMES

AND CRIMINALS

The close relation that exists between the present industrial situation and the increase in criminality is shown in a striking manner by an investigation recently completed by Warren F. Spalding, secretary of the Massachusetts Prison Association. Assaults have been more numerous every month in 1908 than they were in 1907. The first seven months of this year show an increase of twenty-two per cent and there are no signs of abatement as the arrests for assault in July were the highest of any month of the year.

In March, 1907, the arrests for drunkenness began to increase very materially, 940 more arrests on this charge were made in 1907 than in 1906. The remaining months of 1907 showed increases varying from 188 to 607 over the corresponding months of 1906. The calendar year showed an increase of 4,751. In every month except March, 1907, there has been an increase in 1908. 3,888 persons were arrested for drunkenness in June, 1908—the highest ever known—702 more than in June, 1907. The increase for the first seven months has been 2,337. Arrests for burglary in Massachusetts have been during seven months past nearly sixty-eight per cent larger than in the same months of 1907.

In the first six months of the year the number of vagrants arrested averaged about fifty per month, nearly three times as many as in the same months of 1907. In miscellaneous offences there has been a particularly noticeable increase—nearly fifty per cent in the first seven months of 1908.

Taking all the arrests together, the aggregate for the past seven months has been 38,070, while in 1907 it was 32,300, an increase of 6,770, or twenty-one per cent. The largest increase was in July, when the highest point reached was 6,174, against 5,070 in the same month of 1907.

If the rate of increase shall be the same for the next five months as it has been for the past seven, the arrests for the year will number 69,667, compared with 48,146 in 1905.

Mr. Spalding's report shows that the number of arrests and of commitments was smaller in July than it was in June, though still very much larger than a year ago. Mr. Spalding believes that the effect of the business depression as a crime producer will not be outgrown for a long time, because many who have become criminal in the past year will not be able to recover their places in the ranks of good citizens.

Preparation in Club Work¹

Armand Wyle

Superintendent Emanu-El Brotherhood
New York

No person can deny the axiom that "what is worth doing is worth doing well"; club work is no exception to this truth. A definite purpose, kept ever in the mind of the leader, must be the basis for every earnest effort, in order to accomplish good results under all circumstances, foreseen and unforeseen. Many of the latter are likely to arise in the course of the work, but should not cause the principal issue to be overlooked. It is the "work" for which every leader should seek the most satisfactory solution and consummation, but which the dilettante most frequently neglects or does not consider at all. Actuated by a passing fancy, a fad, social aspirations or other false motives, the dilettante more often looks for the unforeseen conditions for self-amusement; seeks to bring out the naivete of a child, or thoughtlessly makes it ridiculous to its fellows. The incidental occurrences comprise, as a matter of fact, much of the joy of club work but do not constitute its real purpose. Club experience is a most important and necessary part of the education of children who are deprived of its equivalent in their own homes; but when this poor substitute for the best home influences is attempted by

persons in no wise connected by blood with the beneficiaries, too much attention to the matter in hand cannot be given. I have observed club leaders who come late; others who remain away, sometimes twice or three times in succession, and invariably they are the ones who have no program, no purpose in regard to those whose time they are, in effect, wasting. Their reply as to the negative result, that "there is a large membership," is not convincing, since the successful club from the most important point of view—the moral, spiritual and social betterment of its members—is the smallest in membership. I should like to add here, in this connection, that it is difficult to know ten children thoroughly: their aspirations, trials, fears and general character, when there are only two hours contact in a whole week. The difficulty increases in geometrical ratio with every added member.

The neglectful leader often substitutes an unprepared reading for a carefully considered story told with elimination of all unnecessary and uninteresting matter, expressed in child language rather than the well turned literary phrases of an author. This sort of reading is monotonous and provocative of restiveness in the listener. When such an incompetent says with pride that there was no interruption by uninterested members, I feel that positive injury is being done, because under such circumstances, the child is afraid to interrupt or assert its natural right to be properly amused. The club is not a school—it is its supplement and should not be conducted on pedagogic lines so far as the child can observe it. Pedagogic it should be in the broad sense, where the lesson can be taught without the child knowing that it is learning a truth not previously understood. Excellent leaders can cause children to teach themselves or one another, in which case the highest ideal of club work is attained, viz.: to inculcate pleasure in reading and writing good literature, to stimulate mental activity and produce a wholesome attitude toward life.

I know leaders who never spend less than half a day in preparation for their weekly meetings, and often realize that

¹Read before the Council of Club Leaders of the Emanu-El Brotherhood.

they require more time, if they would be thoroughly prepared to take up any question that is likely to be propounded. They know their children so well that they are almost sure of the topics that will be brought up. Such leaders arrange to have their business meetings take as little time as possible, and nevertheless interfere very little in what they consider the personal desires of the children. Of course there are occasions when an appeal is made to the leader, and at such times an opportunity is available to direct business in the most expeditious manner possible. The attitude of the leader may be that of an audience, but no one should ever enter this work with the purpose of being amused.

The sentimental "gather-around-me-children" motive is inadequate unless the children have something to gain by gathering. When I first came to Emanu-El Social House, there were many children who came forward with this idea, having learned from experience that it was what most leaders liked. It was not long before I learned how little sincerity prompted this gathering: they hoped to gain something material from the implied compliment, and this was due to the false sentimentality of previous leaders with whom they had come in contact.

The sentiment which prompts the thoughtful leader to enter into the work of preparing minds, otherwise neglected, to develop into sincere, self-reliant men and women, is in itself sufficiently obvious. No worker with children is without affection for them, however unemonstratively in method his work may be conducted. Affection for children, however, must not be the only effort expended in working with them, for it is insufficient to improve their mental and moral condition; nor is it enough to become merely the friend of children. Mutual trust and affection are only means to an important end, and that end can only be accomplished by thoughtful, careful and complete preparation.

A general plan for the entire year may be first considered, which may be divided into months and the monthly work

again into portions to be taken up at each meeting. Each meeting's work should be divided into more or less arbitrary periods, with enforced accomplishment of certain ends within the prescribed time. The business meeting may first be taken up with the leader as an apparently passive member. The literary program may then be considered, wherein the preparation of the leader plays the most important part, not necessarily in lowering the leader's standard to meet that of the children, but in finding the members' general trend of thought regarding life and bringing out the highest phases of it in preparation for a higher standard to which the children will attain at a later day. The social part of the program can terminate the meeting; during this part the leader and children are on the same plane of sociability and the leader may give expression most effectively to any desire to come down to the children, or up to them, as the case may be.

We have in one meeting, then, a period when the children have full sway; another when the leader has absolute charge, arousing in the children an awakening comprehension of every day affairs; and a third period when leader and children are equal in importance and action.

All this can be done without exacting any preparation from the children, other than that which they may have gained from previous meetings, and from their life outside the club. They have enough work in their public school preparation, without being burdened with more for their club, however closely the leader may establish its relation to outer experience. It is enforced preparation for the club which causes children to exhibit little interest in it or to remain but a few weeks and then drop out. The club should be a recreation, a pleasure to which its members will look forward, a playground—but not without the ever present ideal of the leader, to induce them to enjoy in full the self-helpful, educational, spiritual, mental, and social improvement which experience in a club may be made to yield.

Sex and Society¹

Reviewed by **Graham Taylor**

The distinctive value of this volume is the masterful way in which Professor Thomas tests and interprets inferences drawn from anthropological data regarding inherent differences in the sexes, by the adaptation which both women and men have made to their respective social functions. The assumption that woman is inherently inferior to man is shown to ignore not only the characteristics which she has acquired in fulfilling her own function in the family and society, but also the superior qualities involved in adapting herself to her distinct and specialized modes of functioning.

Social control exercised by women in primitive society is explained by the more central and essential relationship of motherhood in the primitive groups. This continued as long as the group depended upon the stationary, conserving function and habit of the female. When, with higher organization, the group became dependent upon the more rapid movement and physical prowess of the male, then social control passed from women to men. The social feeling out of which morality and altruism spring Professor Thomas considers to have been evolved from the sensitiveness developed by courtship, the consideration for physical weakness developed through love of offspring, and the comradeship in the united effort required to protect and promote common family interests. Yet this very chivalric, protective attitude of men toward women proves to have enthralled the sex by customs and limitations of sphere which have excluded the female from community of interests and equality with the male ever since masculine ascendancy was attained in primitive times.

Particularly interesting and significant is the recital of the process by which man superseded woman in industry. His primitive subordination to her when she was comparatively stationary while he

roved when she acquired the arts and property upon which he depended for sustenance and comfort was reversed when the hunting, fishing and nomadic life no longer yielded him adequate reward or satisfaction. Then he brought the strength, agility, enterprise, and versatility acquired in the chase into the industries of civilized life. Thereafter for generations she became relatively restricted and inferior in social status. The author therefore regards as phenomenal the progress which woman is now making wherever she is admitted to an equality of opportunity with man in developing and applying her inherent capabilities and in acquiring new aptitudes.

The summaries which the volume furnishes of the facts and conclusions of anthropological research make it invaluable for readers who desire to know the sources and results of this science rather than its processes. Professor Thomas's own social interpretation of the facts, and his reasoning in reaching them, are not more a distinct contribution to scientific literature than they are the most satisfactory presentation of the subject to those without technical knowledge of the science and literature underlying these studies.

A very distinct point of view is established by the thesis of the volume which is, "That the differences in bodily habit between men and women, particularly the greater strength, restlessness, and motor aptitude of man, and the more stationary condition of woman, have had an important influence on social forms of activity, and on the character and mind of the two sexes." Whoever views or reviews history or contemporary life, industrial status or social progress, customs or morals, with the insight thus given of the differentiation of the sexes in function, in acquired characteristics and in inherent potentialities, cannot fail to be more accurately considerate in judgment or better grounded in hope for the future. The reader's conclusion is likely to be that of the author: "Certain it is that no civilization can remain the highest, if another civilization adds to the intelligence of its men, the intelligence of its women."

¹ Sex and Society; Studies in the Social Psychology of Sex by William I. Thomas, associate professor of sociology in the University of Chicago. Pp. 325. The University of Chicago Press. Price, postpaid, \$1.65. This book can be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

Social Settlements and New York's Lower East Side

Charles S. Bernheimer

Assistant Head Worker University Settlement
New York

Settlements on the lower East Side of Manhattan have come in for some abuse recently. One point at issue is whether some of these settlements proselytize. The original attack was directed by a Catholic priest against one of the settlements in his parish and finally against settlements in general in this district. A Jewish layman has come to the priest's side with a confirmatory charge.

The criticisms insinuate and imply that the settlements lure children by means of bribes for the purpose of converting them from their faith. Such wholesale condemnation is founded on misconception of the purposes of the settlements and misinformation as to their results. If a settlement is guilty of the slightest act repugnant to the religious scruples of those who attend, the attention of the authorities of the particular settlement should be called to the matter. But to charge settlements with machinations against the religious convictions of the young people with whom they come in contact is to malign their principles and their achievements. It is just as considerate to issue diatribes against the modern forces of education and culture as against the settlements. The public schools, the colleges and universities, the libraries and museums, the newspapers and magazines, the art and scientific achievements of the age may be accused of luring the younger generation away from the ideas of the older generation. The settlements are willing to stand the best in this company.

Numbers of the immigrant population, placed in an awry social position, are unable to look after their children properly because of strange language and habits, the necessities of employment, and lack of knowledge of our institutions. Private social agencies such as the settlements, as well as public educational agencies, assist the children. It is true that the authority of the parents is often

weakened by these influences with which the younger generation comes in contact, but that is inevitable. The youth, in gaining knowledge in the public school, in studying for a profession, in following his life vocation, undoubtedly breaks shackles of parental control, but he has in the meantime acquired fundamentals of character and breadth of view which should make him a parent better adapted to the conditions under which his children must be brought up.

One of the most direct sources of usefulness to the young people is the settlement club. This is a small group of boys or girls, or young men and young women who adopt their own rules and elect their own officers. There is a club director or adviser—some older person of more experience, knowledge and culture. Many a discussion in the club is made the means of pointing out proper courses of action. Many a matter which a parent, because of ignorance of the relation of affairs—could not properly explain, is made clear by a born American. Many a quality which goes to make up character is here strengthened. A boy treasurer of a club spends the club's money for his own uses. The club director points out the error of the boy's way, and enforces a lesson on the members of the club. The boys look up to the director. He has previously shown that he is fair and square, that he knows boy's weaknesses and allows for them, but that self-interest, as well as the general interest, demands confidence and honesty. This sounds simple and elementary. It is. But if some of our men of wealth of to-day had had some similar settlement training they might have had better reputations for honor and honesty.

The whirl and turmoil of the life of the lower East Side are such that settlements can touch but portions here and there. To expect them to show that they have improved all phases of the life is asking

too much. Even to prove what bad effects they have prevented is difficult. But one who has followed the careers of many of the young people who have gone through the settlements must be convinced that the young men and women are splendid products, comparable in ability, intelligence and character to any set of young people anywhere. They bring, it is admitted, a native virtue with them—the morality of the fathers and mothers in Israel is a positive asset to start with. Transmuted in the settlement it makes for the genteel, decent, honorable young man or woman.

Even if settlements reached largely the best, they would be performing a valuable function in providing a place of social attractiveness which could not be obtained in any other way. I am firmly of the opinion that the settlements, no matter what their individual peculiarities, are a strong, conserving force in the moral life of the young people.

One needs but look around the lower East Side to see some of the crude institutions the people have organized, to get some intimation of the result if the population were left entirely to its own devices. Take, for instance, the dance halls and amusements and recreations generally. The young people must have some social life which is not afforded in the homes. The theater is too expensive for many and it must in any event be intermingled with other pleasures. Dancing is one of the favorite pastimes. Which is preferable, the dance hall unrestricted and unguarded, or the settlement with its care for the niceties of conduct? We have the answer in a bill presented to the State Legislature by the representative from this district. This bill provides for licensing dance halls and defines them as follows: "The terms dancing academy, dancing school and dance hall mean and include any premises, except those of settlement societies duly incorporated under the laws of this state, used for dancing purposes for the general public and where a fee is exacted. . . ."

It will be noticed that settlements are expressly excluded, and it is on the ground that they have adequate supervis-

ion without invoking the law. The bill states that no licensed person shall permit any female under the age of sixteen to visit the premises of one of these dance halls for dancing after 6:00 P. M. except when accompanied by a parent or legal guardian and no person of bad character shall be allowed on the premises. If it were possible to have dancing everywhere under the supervision of settlements, the conduct resulting from promiscuous meeting of young men and women would be largely safeguarded; but the settlements are limited in number and capacity and it is therefore proposed to pass a law to stem the tide of mischief done by the unrestricted dancing.

The settlement affords opportunity for wholesome amusement and recreation through the parties, the entertainments, the concerts, the debates, the dances, the games, the gymnastics. The last reference suggests another positive element, the gymnasium, with the fine opportunity for physical development, of which many young people have availed themselves to good advantage. The lower East Side youth becomes a different being as the result of his physical training in the schools, the recreation centers and the settlements. To deny the value of these social influences in this respect would be to deny the value of our educational training based upon the study of the physical and moral needs of the individual.

Although the young people obtain the greater part of the direct benefit from the settlements of the lower East Side, there are features, such as concerts, receptions and parents' meetings, whereby parents are brought into contact with the settlement house and their co-operation is obtained. At such parents' or mothers' gatherings the language which the older people best understand, Yiddish, is often used in the talks and recitations which are given in addition to the social features of an evening's entertainment. Attempt is made to strengthen the hands of the parents in every way possible. The settlements stand in neighborly relationship to many parents, visiting them and being visited by them.

Movements for the improvement of the

health, the tenements, the streets of the East Side have, at times, received their impetus from settlements and have usually had their assistance; all this because the people themselves have not had the necessary initiative and understanding to ask for civic improvement.

As to the funds necessary to carry on the activities, I know of none that is not willing to render a free, open, accurate account of its stewardship. Such an account reveals items for salaries of those who superintend the work—not high ones at that; salaries of directors of gymnastics and other classes; payment for janitor services, household expenses, fuel, light, repairs, supplies, printing, postage, stationery; outlays for outings, entertainments and the like. The great amount of service given without charge never appears adequately.

In the University Settlement, for example, there are about one hundred clubs and classes meeting once a week. Each of these, for the most part, has a club director or adviser,—a student, a teacher

or other professional person, a man or woman of education, or possibly a former club member with the necessary knowledge, experience and breadth of view. Such a one may teach sewing or raffia work or aid the club in an athletic, literary or social way; or, there are dancing classes, dramatic performances, choruses, or basket ball teams, coached by such volunteers.

A majority of these club directors and helpers in this settlement are Jews. If they proselytize, it is a case of Jews proselytizing Jews. In this and other settlements stories, essays and lectures on Jewish subjects are, at times, features. They are presented by Jews in a sympathetic manner.

It should be apparent to all impartial observers that there is at least some merit in the settlements here described, and whatever their defects, they are many times counteracted by their virtues. Let church and synagogue organizations emulate these virtues and profit by the faults and the result will be a more wholesome body social.

Communications

A CORRECTION

TO THE EDITOR:

I beg to call the attention of your readers to an inadvertent error in the article appearing in your last issue regarding the work of the New York Association of Neighborhood Workers. In the summary of the legislative activity of the association it was stated that the following bills died in committee:

Assembly Bill No. 637—introduced by Mr. Parker, transferring the enforcement of mercantile inspection in cities of the first class to the State Department of Labor.

Senate Bill No. 512—introduced by Mr. Grady, and Assembly Bill No. 915 (should be 951) introduced by Mr. Filley, providing for a school census.

The first of these measures—the Mercantile Inspection Bill, was re-introduced and passed at the extraordinary session. It was approved by the governor June 16, and became chapter 520 of the laws of 1908. This important bill will go into effect next week Thursday.

The other bill—providing a new school census law—was subsequently re-introduced in a slightly amended form, as Assembly Bill No. 1470—Donihue. It passed both branches of the Legislature and received the governor's signature May 10, becoming chapter 249

of the laws of 1908. This law took effect immediately.

I trust that you will give this statement publicity, in order to correct what might otherwise be misleading to many persons.

GEORGE A. HALL,

Secretary, New York Child Labor Committee.

"SO-CALLED" REFORMATORIES

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read with much attention in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS of July 18 a letter from Magistrate Robert J. Wilkin, justice of the Court of Special Sessions and member of the Board of Parole, which was printed under the caption Future of Misdemeanants. It is encouraging that Judge Wilkin has determined to bring the condition of the inmates of the New York City Reformatory for Misdemeanants, on Hart's Island, to the attention of the city. "A so-called city reformatory" he styles it, and this single condemnatory phrase from a justice of the Court of Special Sessions is more significant than columns of reprehension from a layman.

Commissioner Thomas W. Hynes inspected this institution in the fall of 1907,

and his report appears in the thirteenth annual report of the State Commission of Prisons. Extracts from Mr. Hynes's report follow:

"I must state most emphatically that the school as now conducted is, instead of a means of reforming the inmates, a serious detriment to the present and future welfare of the boys committed there. . . .

"Instead of taking every precaution to improve the moral condition of the inmates by keeping them from the contact of evil influences, the contrary is the condition, and though chaplains are regularly in attendance their services are of little avail because of the evil influences with which the youths are surrounded. . . .

"I was told there was no attempt at classification of the inmates in the dormitories, that men and boys ranging in age from sixteen to thirty years are placed in adjoining beds with apparently no effort made at classification as to ages and conditions, leaving the youthful prisoners in danger of contamination with the older and more vicious."

This was the condition only last fall in this new reformatory ("so-called") which was created by special legislation and installed in 1906. With what seems quite remarkable foresight however the matter of finances was entirely overlooked. No appropriation was made for building or maintaining the new school, which had to be started and is still carried on in ramshackle buildings formerly pertaining to the workhouse. Even some of the keepers of the latter institution, I am told, had to be loaned for a time to get the new reformatory on its feet. This in the American metropolis! The constant apology of the Department of Correction for the inadequate buildings and equipment is "lack of funds." Yet this school, where the most ignorant and therefore most unfortunate boys are committed, ought justly to be high-class in every particular, for in no other way can such boys be reformed.

Commissioner Hynes's report has had one good result at least. Old and hardened second and third term men are no longer sent there. But the dormitory system without grading, even where young prisoners are concerned, cannot but bring into intimate contact comparatively unsophisticated boys with others who are past-masters in vice. Moral contamination is not necessarily a matter of a few years, more or less, where the boy's age is concerned, and the crowded prison dormitory lends itself to such contamination.

I am heartily in accord with Judge Wilkin's effort, and in quoting from his letter the following paragraphs, which have impressed me as somewhat equivocal, I do so solely with a view to clarity.

"It is a rule of the Board of Parole, which was beneficently provided to prevent an inmate from being compelled to steal after he is paroled, that an inmate cannot be released unless he has some one to refer to who will give him a temporary home, from which he can find employment."

"When he has earned this standard (900 merit marks), the board then requires that he shall have a home or place to go to from the institution and a situation for employment. If these are provided, his parole is granted. . . ."

In the first statement it appears that if an inmate is assured a place of residence, he may be paroled and then seek employment. The second statement would indicate that both a place of residence and employment are conditions of parole. This I believe is not the case however, as several boys paroled from this institution have resided with me at the Chrystie Street House, and I have obtained positions for them after they came here.

"In the other case, which may occur from fifteen to twenty times each calendar year," writes Judge Wilkin, "we find a young man without a home or friends, and under the rule of the board he cannot be discharged until some home is provided for him. How ridiculously cruel it is for the city of New York to take a young man and detain him for several months in a reformatory institution, and then, at the end of a certain time, land him at the foot of East Twenty-sixth street, without a penny in his pocket or a suit of warm clothing on him in the winter time, or a home to go to, or work. As I said before, how ridiculously cruel this seems, and yet that is what we, in this respectable city, are doing."

The foregoing I find inexplicable. If as it indicates a boy paroled from the New York city reformatory is landed on the 26th street dock penniless and without suitable clothing or a home to go to, clearly the Board of Parole is acting adversely to its own rule, that an inmate cannot be paroled unless a home has been provided for him. "Ridiculously cruel" does not half express it. It is inhuman.

What follows is still more surprising:

"The writer, together with the other members of the Board of Parole, have endeavored to enlist the sympathy and interest of several organizations whose interest is in the welfare of discharged prisoners, but thus far there seems to be no society or organization which has, as part of its plan, even the temporary after care of these young men who many times, aye, very many times, owe their incarceration, not to their criminal attitude, but to their previous unfortunate surroundings."

This is surprising for the reason that since the summer of 1906 nineteen boys

paroled from the New York City Reformatory for Misdemeanants have been received by me at the Chrystie Street House, where they have resided for periods ranging from a few days to several months, a number obtaining employment while here.

I find in the records of this house the following entries of boys on parole from the New York City Reformatory for Misdemeanants:

July 13 to July 25, 1906, M— H—.

Broke his parole and eventually was returned to the reformatory.

July 13 to July 15, 1906, W— M—.

Obtained work on a farm.

Returned to this house Dec. 21, 1906, obtained employment and resided at the house until Feb. 6, 1907.

Aug. 17 to 21, 1906, H— S—.

Broke parole and disappeared.

Oct. 12 to 16 and Oct. 18 to 22, 1906, R— B—.

Enlisted in U. S. Army.

Nov. 16 to 18, 1906, W— M—.

Broke parole and disappeared.

Nov. 16 to 19, 1906, J— B—.

Broke parole and disappeared.

Nov. 16 to 23, 1906, H— G—.

Broke parole and disappeared.

Nov. 17 to 19, 1906, J— M—.

Broke parole and disappeared.

Nov. 16 to 18, 1906, E— J—.

Broke parole and disappeared. Was rearrested later.

Jan. 11 to Feb. 17, 1907, J— D—.

Obtained employment.

March 28 to Apl. 7, 1907, A— G—.

Obtained employment.

March 16 and 17, 1907, N— J—.

Obtained employment. Stole from his employer; was returned to the reformatory.

Jan. 11, 1907, L— K—.

Broke parole and disappeared.

Aug. 21 to 27, 1907, J— K—.

Obtained employment but developed tuberculosis. Returned to the House Sept. 20 to 27. Now in Metropolitan Hospital.

Feb. 10 to 17, 1907, J— R—.

Returned to his home in Texas.

Nov. 16 to 21, 1907, G— U—.

Obtained employment.

Dec. 21, 1907, to June 16, 1908, M— H—.

Obtained employment.

May 20 to 23, 1908, H— K—.

Obtained employment and went to live with employer.

June 12 to 26, 1908, J— M—.

Obtained employment and went to live with employer.

It is scarcely reasonable to assume that boys in need of reformation can be greatly improved in three months—the period required to earn parole in this reformatory—even under most favorable conditions. The New York State Reformatory finds thirteen months none too long for instilling the rudiments of an education and teaching a trade. With illiterate and dull boys to deal with, this probably is too short a time to prepare them to earn a living.

The boys who broke their parole and ran away may have intended doing so throughout the three months of good conduct necessary to earn their parole. Or the spirit of flight may have spread among several at the suggestion of one boy to "beat it."

While the Chrystie Street House directs its efforts mainly to aiding boys who have just been liberated from prison, being without the care and advice of a parole officer, and to helping others to avoid prison experience while there is time, it does nevertheless receive boys and young men who are on parole or probation. It has been found however that the note of distrust and suspicion introduced by an individual still in the grip of the law is somewhat antagonistic to the spirit of this house, which is that of mutual confidence.

It is my belief, founded on considerable experience, that in the absence of responsible relatives, it is the officer himself who should act as the close friend and adviser of the boy on parole, thus winning his trust and esteem. This I have endeavored to express in an article which appeared in the *Evening Post* of July 17 under the title, *Help For Boy Wanderers* as follows:

"Similar houses (like the Chrystie Street House) would also be of inestimable value for boys on probation or on parole, who might reside there under the immediate supervision of a probation or parole officer, who thus would find an opportunity to enter upon friendly relations with the boy, which are not practicable under the present system of occasional reporting. Such houses already exist in some cities, for probationers. The best development of probation and parole work would seem to largely depend upon the founding of such houses."

WALLACE GILLPATRICK,

Superintendent, The Chrystie Street House.

Jottings

Winter Outlook in Newark, New Jersey.—Newark has shared in large measure the fate of other manufacturing cities. Of the hundreds of mills and factories that closed down some months ago, a few have resumed their work. The Associated Charities have

never known such a summer in charity work. The increased number of applications has continued, one of the probable causes being that the savings of the thrifty have been exhausted and they have been forced to appeal for aid. However, the report of the

provident savings collector seems hopeful. She states that from May until September 1, she has collected two-thirds of the amount she did last summer during the same period. It seems then that the people are learning the valuable lesson of saving. The outlook for the fall is not promising. It looks as though business will not be resumed to any large extent for several months and that many people are nearly at the end of their resources.

Playgrounds in Minneapolis.—The first playground was opened in Minneapolis in connection with the vacation schools in the summer of 1903, and since then the Park Board has made definite progress each year in adding grounds or enlarging and perfecting the play places already established. Only a year ago a single paid director was employed, but this year six assistant directors are at work. For equipment to date the amount spent is close to \$40,000 and the board has taken a broad stand as to the need of doing more along this line for the children of Minneapolis as a definite part of the program for civic betterment and social welfare to which the community as a whole is giving its ready assent. One of the fine pieces of work it intends doing in the near future is to convert the parade grounds in front of the new state armory and covering about sixty acres of land, into a great recreation park where all

kinds of games can be played and on which there will be both an indoor and outdoor gymnasium with baths. At the present time baseball games are permitted on these grounds, provision being made for five diamonds. Attendance at each of the six parks has averaged this season about 800, while at the public bath, down on the Mississippi river, in connection with which there is a playground, the attendance has run up to 1,500 a day.

Courses for Retail Store Clerks.—Courses for retail store workers have been introduced in the schools of New York city under the direction of Miss Diana Hirschler. The first class were held on Monday evening in Public School 27. The general idea of the courses will be instruction in the art of selling. A study of the organization of large and small stores will be made and the salesman will be taught to be of genuine service to the customer. The student will also study different articles of sale so that she will be able to give expert advice to the customer.

Jewish Farmers in Missouri.—About three thousand acres of farm land have been selected by the Jewish Educational Alliance of St. Louis. It is in Crawford county, Missouri, and will be settled by Jews who are now residents of the congested districts of St. Louis.

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